THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL of SPEECH

Official Publication
of
The National Association of Teachers of Speech

Southwestern College Library

Volume XXIV December, 1938 Number 4

PEDAGOGY
The Educational Philosophy of the Teacher of Speech, *A. Craig Baird* . . . 545
A Plea for Coöperation, *J. Walter Reeves* 553

VOICE SCIENCE
Evolution of the Speech Mechanism, *Raymond Carhart* 557
The Interpretative Symbol, *Bryng Bryngelson* 569

DRAMA
Selection of Materials for Play Production in the Junior High Schools, *Christina B. Andreini* 573
Purposeful High School Dramatics, *Katharine Anne Ommanney* 578

PUBLIC SPEAKING
Patterns of Public Discussion in School and in Life, *William E. Utterback* . . 584
Speech Purpose in Public Speaking, *Jesse J. Villarreal* 589

INTERPRETATION
The Mystery of Oral Interpretation, *J. T. Marshman* 596

SPEECH CORRECTION
Guidance and Speech in the School Program, *Donald Nylen* 603
Speech Correction Facilities in Colleges and Universities of Indiana, *E. K. Jerome and M. D. Steer* 609

PHONETICS
Are Affricates Elemental Phonemes? *Charles H. Voelker* 612

RHETORIC
Motivation as a Factor in Lincoln's Rhetoric, *Earl W. Wiley* 615

RADIO
The Place of Radio in the Speech Curriculum Today, *Donald W. Riley* 622

DEBATE
A Sense of Direction in High School Debating, *Elbert W. Harrington* . . . 627
Bibliography of Periodical Literature on Debating and Discussion, *Henry Lee Ewbank* 634

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
The Effect of Speech Defects on Second Grade Reading Achievement, *Margery Anne Moss* 642
A Review of Research in Audience Reaction; Part II, *William A. D. Millson* . . 655

Forum Communications by *Norman E. Eliason, Sands Chipman, Edwin H. Paget* 673

EDITORIAL 692
NEW BOOKS 693
NEWS AND NOTES 707
WHO'S WHO 720

The Quarterly Journal of Speech

Volumes I-III, Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking
Volumes IV-XIII, Quarterly Journal of Speech Education

Published by

The National Association of Teachers of Speech

EDITOR

CLAUDE M. WISE, Louisiana State University

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

LESTER THONSSEN, *College of the City of New York*, New York City . . . In the Periodicals
BARNARD HEWITT, *Brooklyn College*, Brooklyn, New York . . . . . New Books
LOUISE ROUSSEAU, 49 East Thirty-third Street, New York City . . . . . News and Notes
GLADYS BORCHERS, *University of Wisconsin*, Madison, Wisconsin . . . . Speech Curricula
MARY WHITEFORD GRAHAM, 1005 West California Street, Urbana, Illinois . . . . Old Books
H. G. ROBERTS, *George Washington University*, Washington, D.C. . . Contemporary Speeches
GUS CAMPBELL, *No. Ill. State Teachers College*, De Kalb, Ill. . . . Speech in Secondary Schools

ADVISORY EDITORS

Charles Fritz, New York University, New York, New York; Lionel Crocker, Denison University, Granville, Ohio; H. P. Constans, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida; E. R. Nichols, University of Redlands, Redlands, California.

BUSINESS MANAGER

G. E. DENSMORE, University of Michigan

Ann Arbor, Michigan

Subscriptions, or correspondence concerning them, should be addressed to the Business Manager.

Contributions to any of the various departments should be addressed to the appropriate Associate Editor.

Manuscripts of articles, and correspondence concerning them, should be addressed to the Editor, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana.

In preparing manuscripts, contributors are requested to follow the instructions printed in the February, 1933, issue; copies of these instructions may be obtained from the Editor.

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH is published in the months of February, April, October and December, by THE ANN ARBOR PRESS, Ann Arbor, Michigan, for THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

Entered as second class matter at the post office at Ann Arbor, Michigan, under the act of March 3, 1879.

Subscription price $2.50 a year, including membership in THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. Single copies 75 cents. All remittances should be payable to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

One free index and title page for the preceding volume is inserted in each February Journal which goes to subscribers. Additional indexes and title pages, 15 cents per volume.

A Table of Contents of available back issues of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH will be sent upon request.

Copyright, 1938, by The National Association of Teachers of Speech.

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH

VOLUME XXIV DECEMBER, 1938 NUMBER 4

THE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF THE TEACHER OF SPEECH

A. CRAIG BAIRD
State University of Iowa

WHAT educational philosophy should govern the contemporary teacher of speech? How far should we continue to hold high the banner of individual humanism and proclaim that our pupils should be fitted for the life of freedom and culture? An alternative to this theory of idealism in instruction is that of realism. As realists, how far should we equip our disciples to take their places as Renaissance gentlemen in a modern world of affairs? How far should they be encouraged to substitute for the humanism of Erasmus the actualities of this topsy-turvy world? A third emphasis may be that of reason. To what extent should we speech instructors apply the doctrine of disciplinarianism and rationalism? Should we, for example, follow Locke, Voltaire, and Diderot in directing our students to test all things by reason and on that basis reject much of this sentimental civilization?

Still another school of thinking inclines to the more stimulating naturalism of Rousseau. Shall we not have secondary school and college pupils exalt the virtues of the natural man, including the virtues of adequate speech? Or, to note still another of the historic philosophies, should we speech specialists of 1937–38 commit ourselves to the doctrine of nationalism? Should we, in short, organize our thinking and our curriculum about the ideals of American, perhaps New Deal, citizenship?

If we reject the theory of educational nationalism, then we may prefer to absorb the enthusiasms of the psychological developmentalists, from Herbart to Thorndike. To raise still another problem,

may we not primarily follow the cult of scientific determinism? May we not thus view speech as a science and apply laboratory methods to every speech problem? Finally, should we not swell the camp of those social experimentalists, the progressive educators? Thus educators have been by turns humanists, rationalists, naturalists, psychologists, physical and physiological scientists, and social experimentalists, or combinations of these groups. The problem, then, is this: into what one of these seven or eight schools of thinking will our speech activities and our curriculum best fit?

If you survey the published papers, research studies, outlines of speech curricula, and textbooks by American speech teachers during the past twenty years, you will note an interesting variety in the underlying thinking. The conflicting attitudes of the educational world are mirrored in our own field. We are by turns humanists, realists, scientists, and much else.

Speech humanists, for example, are among us aplenty. We humanists usually have a strong English background, a predilection for Aristotle, a faith in the seven liberal arts (or at least the first three), and we insist upon course content.

Among our speech fraternity are also the disciples of reason, followers of John Locke and Adam Smith. We Lockeians specialize in contemporary history and economics; and we are not averse to statistics. We rationalists constitute the robust progeny who direct debate teams and encourage business and professional speaking.

A third group of philosophers are the speech aesthetes. We who fall into this category believe in beauty of vocal diction and correctness of posture. We talk much of standard pronunciation as the central problem and of linguistics for all.

Still another group of us have fallen heir to scientific determinism. We follow Lord Bacon, Herbert Spencer, and modern science; we interest ourselves chiefly in physical and physiological aspects of speech science.

Yet another branch of us have, especially since 1920, adopted the ways of behavioristic and other varieties of psychology. We have given new and more exact names to speech attributes. We have, no doubt, contributed to a new insight into our speech discipline.

Finally, a few of us have attempted to adjust our teaching and thinking to the ways of the social experimentalists, the progressive educators. With these progressives we have hoped to reconstruct the social order, provide freedom for pupil and teacher, guidance rather than discipline, life rather than school.

Thus we speech teachers, each according to our temperament and speech specialization, have aligned ourselves with one of these camps. The fact that zealots of the spoken word have extended the limits of our field to encompass the entire curriculum has further confused the problem of selecting and limiting speech goals. In a word, we need a philosophy of speech no less than a philosophy of rhetoric, discussion, voice science, or dramatic art.

May we, in these attitudes I have mentioned, discern certain basic principles or trends that should govern our present-day teaching? Three or four such principles or controlling purposes suggest themselves.

1. The first and most obvious of these premises is that speech instruction should be based upon individual needs and capacities. The pedagogic law is that instruction should be adapted to individual differences. The assumption is that learning responses are "determined by and limited by individual differences in ability." Our problem here is to find group tendencies, but also to note the wide individual variations from the norm. We note at every grade level the considerable numbers of pupils with major or minor speech defects; the numbers with obvious speaking deficiencies. We also note with relief the five percent at the top who have originality and skill in reading, impersonation and debate. Incidentally, we also observe that those same people direct the school paper and the eight or nine school committees. Our prescription, at any rate for speech in all these cases, is both group and individual.

Little in this principle, we agree, is new. When ten years ago in our N.A.T.S. meetings we began to talk about individual differences, we were merely echoing the old Christian concept of education with its assumption of the importance of individual personality. The romantic movement of the continent and in England and doctrine of the natural man are likewise responsible. The gospel of the uniqueness and importance of personality also traces to American democracy with its faith in every man, with its Horace Mann schools and its state universities with their teeming millions. But this new doctrine of individualism in speech training is due chiefly to contemporary psychologists like Thorndike. This new interest in the person is working, and will work, such changes in our field as to amount practically to a departure from our traditional speech philosophy.

Just how should the principle work in the school system? First, the program calls for speech from nursery to graduate school. We now have the spectacle of pupils who talk almost every minute of the

day and at every level. We also have the spectacle of those people talking with little or no speech guidance. Second, each locality and each school should arrange its own curriculum to meet its own needs. Schools are almost as unique as individuals. Third, this individual program should be flexible enough to allow for adjustment to a given group and to each pupil within that group. Fourth, the elementary school program, to illustrate, will be administered by the speech supervisor, through whom each teacher will intelligenly direct the endless speaking experiences of the child. Fifth, at least three types of teaching projects will be set up: (1) group and individual exercises; (2) discussion and conversation periods involving the typical school activities; (3) periods of organized talks by the pupils to their pupil audiences. Sixth, proceeding from the core-curriculum in speech on the secondary level will be the extra-curricular debates, discussions, original speaking, impersonation, acting, and interpretative reading. A plan similarly scaled and diversified will more and more establish itself in the two-year and four-year colleges.

How far have we applied this philosophy? We have certainly met the needs of the upper five percent—or at least we have tried to do so. Behold the superior students who mill about us, the debaters, the orators, the readers, and actors! But what of the rank and file? They mill about also—sheep without a speech shepherd! Why have we ignored them? Partly because we love to teach geniuses; partly because our time is limited; partly because school administrations want quick results; partly because we have not fully accepted our philosophy of speech for all; partly because we have not quite known how to diagnose and build a program for the submerged fifty or seventy-five percent. The next important era in the history of American speech education then will be that in which we develop speech throughout the curriculum—speech for all. Thus will we truly integrate the subject with American public education.

2. The second principle about which I should like to speak is this: speech training should provide for social integration. The assumption here is that every response has social implications. The goal is to equip every American with a vocal technique that will enable him to perform more adequately his duties "both private and publick in Peace and War."

Here again the roots of the philosophy are remote. The Spartans, for example, educated for the state alone. Incidentally, the educational system helped to make Sparta a military training ground for centuries. There is little likelihood that Spartanism will recur in

America. But I do suggest that the economic and social changes in the United States since 1898 and especially since 1917 have revived interest in education as a social tool. These movements, national and international, have strongly modified the perspective of educators. The cardinal aims of education to secure individual success and power are obsolete unless we read social meaning into those terms. Even vocational training has its limitations. The development of skills, habits, ideals, knowledge, attitudes, are not, we agree, the end. Rather they are the means to assimilate each learner into the local and universal community.

These newer impulses in the social and economic world have voiced themselves in the educational realm best through the progressive education movement. These much maligned experimentalists with their new schools for old, new types of teachers, new view of education as the reconstruction of experience, have nevertheless aimed mainly to develop social competence. John Dewey, father of the movement, is primarily a social evolutionist. If you are a Progressive educator—with big or little P—you are interested in social reconstruction. In that direction, and in that direction alone, lies our speech salvation.

What is the immediate significance to speech teachers of this doctrine of socialization? First, we have been engrossed in speech culture, as I have suggested above. We are Platonists. Secondly, those of us who deny the Greek ideal have yielded to the pressure of our pupils. We sell our wares as vocational material. The favorable eye of the Federal Board of Vocational Education is upon us. Debate at my University, for example, is good for lawyers. Sixty-seven percent of the college debaters become lawyers. Furthermore, at least one graduate study in speech proves that the earning power of former debaters is at least as good as that of former football letter men! But in the primary schools and even in the junior high schools our function is not that of turning out salesmen, radio announcers, preachers, or even teachers. What profits it if the eighteen-year-old American is trained to pound a typewriter or repair an automobile for two score years and ten if he lack fundamental habits? What he needs mainly is some command of judgment. He needs the rudiments of knowledge and skill through reading and writing. Otherwise how can he react progressively to radio, press, or pulpit? Here we are treading on the toes of Progressivism—in fact, parting company with it. There is no educational substitute for the possession of good fundamental speech habits.

"But," some may say, "socialization as a cardinal principle of speech merely leads to standardization and to disaster." We agree to the danger. If monasticism hardly works, neither does mass servitude to the state. The problem is, Can we successfully correlate individual excellence with social solidarity? can we order the community so that the individual conditioned by his environment has the optimum means for improvement? On the other hand, can we so direct the habits, skills, attitudes, and reasoning powers of each member that maximum social progress results?

Little prospect is there that our political world will give undue attention to the individual. The chief danger, on the contrary, as hordes of orators and writers have warned us since 1925 and again since 1933, is that social regimentation will absorb each forgotten man into the body politic. Such assimilation is under way over much of the world. The real issue, then, as we commit our pupils to the program of social experimentation, is whether the speaking performance, including the discussion of controversial problems of the day, shall be limited in the interest of governmental efficiency.

We public speaking instructors, especially those of us who sponsor forensics, deal constantly with multilateral issues. The pressure groups are constantly at our elbow. Intense nationalism and limited freedom of speech probably have a high correlation. As the tide of propaganda rises, so does the pressure increase. We must move with greater and greater dexterity to escape disaster. If we socialize education, we do so at the risk of a free press and free speech. Let us experiment socially in speech; but let us assure ourselves that every forum shall speak and vote free from the pressure of whatever party happens to be in power in Washington.

Loyalty to this principle of free speech as a corollary of social education raises the familiar question of freedom from educational indoctrination. A considerable body of patriotic and realistic educators have vigorously and no doubt rightly upheld the American ideals of democracy, business, and inviolability of the Western hemisphere. As a result they have taught civics and history through indoctrination. "Give the young pupil the essentials of American civilization," they suggest. On the other hand, a more limited group of other progressives have challenged with even more vigor the whole capitalistic system. They have gone the indoctrinators one better.

Among these well-meaning but highly propagandistic groups we stand—the teachers of public speaking. In this confusion we are, after

all, timid souls. We too are patriots. But we are not partisans. Our function is to see that the participants in debate and discussion assemble knowledge, present the varied points of view. We assume that the best democracy results from free discussion. Certainly the doctrinaire schools and the indoctrination process offer no hope for healthy-minded America.

One more observation should be made: the escape from biased and subservient attitudes concerning public questions can come only through clear thinking. The best protection from partisan pressure is social thinking. Can the instructor of public speaking teach thinking? One of the fundamentals of a good speech is thought. I agree that we use the term *thinking* loosely. May I limit my meaning, therefore, to Dewey's concept. Dewey and the teachers of debate since Baker's day are not so far apart. I refer to the process of logical definition, analysis or partition of an idea, proper formulation of propositions, the summoning of specific arguments and evidence to support these propositions, the testing of each argument and its supporting data, and the drawing of tentative conclusions. This is the method of thinking. For years the debate instructor has taught it. Today he still humbly offers it as a device for producing a good speech—incidentally, for good education and good citizenship.

3. Still another principle, the corollary of speech as a social tool, is that speech education should be a "reconstruction of experience." Again we revert to Dewey's thesis of the identity of school and life, of learning and doing. Our goal, then, will be to substitute activity for subjects, to make the classroom a miniature world, to carry the pupils into that world, and so enable them to rebuild their experience by reconstructing their ideas "in the light of newly discovered relationships between the parts of 'their' experience." The tenets here are again those of progressive educationalists. The speech instructor hastens to subscribe to their general outlines. The doctrine is not strange to us. For years, in fact, the necessity of efficient teaching and the discovery of values in experience projects have led us in the direction of just such teaching principles. Has not progressive education recently brought to light what every director of speech activities has been aware of for forty years? Yale and Harvard got together in public debate in December, 1892, and attempted to settle the problem of whether a young man should cast his first vote for the Democratic ticket. Was not that occasion a typical "activity," related to the world of those mildly excited collegians?

Our problem is partly that of evaluating our extra-curricular

activities, debate, oratory, extempore speaking, discussion, reading, acting, choral reading, radio speaking competition, and other performances. More or less ignored or outcast twenty years ago, these student performances now have become closely integrated with the school, and even college, curriculum. Their educational security is assured. Nevertheless, the validity of each of these activities needs special scrutiny and testing in view of specific speech goals and social objectives, outlined above. Such examination has thus far been only partly done. Such testing should result in a clearer definition of the aims of each, and an improvement in the procedure. Certainly the number of such activities needs expansion to provide for the variety of real-life situations. The numbers of pupils participating in each division must be increased. The general educational and specific speech values must in every case be more clearly realized by suitable selection of participants, content, agencies for execution, and administration. Rating sheets, properly standardized to describe group tendencies, should furnish a means of individual achievement. Critic judges, as many as possible for each occasion and chosen exclusively from speech teachers, should weigh the performances as educational demonstrations.

Furthermore, the process of improving these more glamorous public performances should be closely duplicated in the case of each classroom speaking unit. Here, certainly, the more usable forms of speaking in the practical world should be more fully encouraged. Here, as elsewhere, the needs of the rank and file, few of whom will later deliver public debates, original orations, or selected readings, must be met. The speech teachers will thus devise a curriculum in which the pupils' speech experience with his community remains unbroken. With such teaching insight, ample motivation will spur on not only the debaters who may want to play a game, or some actors who may crave exhibitionism, but the large number whose interest in the world about them is constantly quickened and seeks expression through normal speech.

4. Finally, may I refer to one other fundamental of our speech educational philosophy: experimentation and evaluation are its moving spirit. My paper here has steadily implied that our curriculum should relate itself at every point to the present and later experience of the pupil. A moment ago I referred by implication to a constant program of testing that curriculum.

Our NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, for more than twenty years, has mainly directed its energies toward self-definition, organizational ex-

pansion, the recital of teaching precedures, the generation of mutual inspiration. These things are splendid. But has our course not been occasionally ill-starred? Should we not now, without relaxing our pursuit of these practical things, concentrate more systematically on the evaluation of our work? May we not as a national organization under our stars in the next decades assume more clearly our mature function as a critic of our own thinking and working? May we not appropriate the best of the thousand measuring tests and devise others? May we not view more objectively the outcomes of our philosophy, our curricula, our details of instruction? May we not analyze scientifically speech attitudes, speech skills, speech information, speech activities of every sort? Our heritage, including the impress of such speech statesmen as Charles Henry Woolbert, has been profoundly important. But the way of our common progress lies mainly through the paths of experiment and evaluation. Only thus will the larger concepts and the minutae of our art have the criteria of reliability and validity.

A PLEA FOR COÖPERATION

J. WALTER REEVES
Peddie School

THIS article is specifically addressed to college teachers of speech. It is hoped that you will be patient and read it through, and ask yourselves the question: "Is this plea addressed to me?" It is my desire to make you feel so uncomfortable that you will do something.

About fifteen years ago I addressed an article to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH setting forth reasons why public speaking in secondary schools should have college entrance credit. Professor O'Neill, the editor of the JOURNAL at that time, thought that the subject was one of real interest and suggested that the matter should be presented at the National Convention. I was invited to present the matter at our Chicago Convention in 1919. A committee was appointed to take up the proposition with the colleges. Several questionnaires were sent out. The first one was addressed to the presidents of colleges asking them (1) if they gave entrance credit for speech work done in secondary schools and (2) whether they felt that the subject deserved entrance credit. The answer to the first question was almost unanimously in the negative. The answer to the second

question was overwhelmingly in the affirmative. Almost without exception the college presidents or their deans said that they felt that students would be at a considerable advantage if they had had speech work when they entered college. Since then there have been other questionnaires sent out. The two most recent are those of Miss Clara E. Krefting and Miss Ethel G. Lord.

Each succeeding questionnaire has shown an increased interest in public speaking on the part of the colleges. More and more colleges are giving entrance credit, but there are still many which as yet do not recognize speech as having a place in the sun. According to G. E. Densmore, Executive Secretary of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, there are 15,000 teachers in the United States who are giving courses in speech. Many of these are working under a great handicap, a handicap that practically no other teacher in the secondary school encounters. A vast majority of the teachers in secondary schools have the satisfaction of knowing that their work is deemed of sufficient importance that the colleges will recognize it and allow entrance credit. Not so with teachers of speech. Recent questionnaires indicate that nearly 50% of the colleges still fail to recognize speech in the allowance of credit for entrance credits. Many of them will grant a unit for wood work, music, general science, and what not, but refuse to recognize a subject that has a universal appeal. The demand for adult courses in speech has exceeded the demand for any other course. And yet we are without recognition in many of our colleges and universities. The point I want to make clear is this: that so long as there are a few colleges, and there are more than a few, which do not give entrance credit, no school can definitely give graduation credit without the chance of doing an injustice to its graduates. Many students are not sure of their choice of college till they graduate from the secondary school. So long as there is a chance that they may go to a college which does not recognize speech, then that secondary school must see that its students are furnished with the full number of fifteen units, which the colleges require, and that these units are to be those that any college will accept. This means no units in speech.

There are many colleges which recognize speech. No one would ever know it, however, unless he wrote to the registrar, for there is no mention made of it in the catalog. Naturally, when a student's advisor is making out his, the student's, schedule of courses, he turns to the catalog of the college which has been chosen and makes a careful study of the courses which are required and those which can be

elected. If speech is not included in the list of so-called "cats and dogs" which may make up the electives, then the advisor suggests courses which will fulfill the requirements of that particular college.

Recently I examined one hundred catalogs of our leading colleges and universities and only two of the one hundred made any mention of entrance credit being allowed for speech. These two were the University of Wisconsin and the University of Missouri. Many other fine universities, such as Princeton and Cornell, have indicated in answer to a questionnaire that they will allow entrance credit, but it is not so stated in their catalogs. Because there are some college teachers of speech who still do not believe that entrance credit should be allowed, I should like to prove that it would be advantageous both to the colleges and to the secondary schools.

1. It will be an advantage to the college if entrance credit is generally allowed. The students will enter college with a background of training which will have made them "speech conscious." College teachers will not have to begin with the fundamentals, but can start where the secondary training was left off and go ahead to advanced fields. Some of you say that the work is so poorly done in secondary schools that you prefer to do the whole job yourself. But I believe the teachers of speech in these same secondary schools are above the average, for few of them attempt the subject of speech without special training.

Again, the student coming into college with entrance credit in speech will have increased respect for the subject. He will have more interest in pursuing the subject in college. As it now stands, he has been led to believe that speech is an incidental subject which cannot be worth much, else they would have given it in his school as a regular subject and allowed him graduation and entrance credit. Surely the college teacher cannot say that the work is not, on the whole, well organized, for there are syllabi worked out for these courses, some of which have been handed down to us by committees made up largely of college teachers. The committee headed by Professor Drummond is a good example. Another good syllabus is the one that Miss Gladys Borchers' committee has developed, which has had the stamp of approval of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION. It cannot be said that the text books in speech are not satisfactory. The best proof of this is that most of them have been written by college teachers themselves. Incidentally, if entrance credit was allowed universally, there would open up a profitable field for the college teachers who are inclined to write for that field.

2. It will help the cause of speech in secondary schools if entrance credit is given. No full time course can be given in most schools if graduation credit is not allowed, and graduation credit cannot be permitted if entrance credit is withheld. The reason for this is that the students have a full four years' work to fulfill the requirements for the fifteen units of credit which the colleges require. As a result of this condition, speech work is often made a one-hour-per-week subject. This is bad, for it does not make for thorough work and it leads the student to believe that speech is an incidental course. The tendency is strong, under these conditions, to have the English teacher give over one hour per week to the teaching of oral English. I do not believe that any teachers either of speech or English will agree that this is satisfactory.

Let me set forth a concrete illustration of some of the difficulties of the teacher of speech in a secondary school. In the school where I teach, speech is required throughout the four years of college preparation. The arrangement has been to take one hour per week from the English course, which means that speech has one hour and English has four hours. This has been a makeshift at best. Recently, however, the teachers of English, especially in the fourth or senior year, have said that because of college pressure and because of the poor background in English of boys coming from high school to this school for their senior year, they must have the full five hours per week to get the boys ready for college. Permission to have the five hours has been granted. This makes it necessary, if speech is to be given, to run it in as an extra. This will be difficult to do when the student's schedule is already crowded. The Headmaster of the school, after this had been decided, asked me the question: "Why don't we make speech an elective, and then the boys can take the speech courses instead of electing biology, or a history or some other courses?" My answer was that we couldn't do that because many of our boys went to colleges and universities where credit was not allowed. His question then came: "Why isn't entrance credit allowed for speech?" I prefer to let you answer that question. I can hear you make the reply: "We do not have anything to do with what our college accepts for entrance credit." But is that so? Should it be so? I believe that if you were thoroughly convinced that entrance credit should be allowed, it would take comparatively little argument on your part to convince the Admissions Committee to allow credit. You can do the job far better and more quickly than we can.

As I see it, there are only two reasons why you may not take this

matter up with your proper authorities: (1) you may be indifferent, (2) you may not consider the subject worthy of entrance credit. I think that you cannot conscientiously hide behind either of these reasons.

You may ask the question, what can we do about it? Tell your operator to connect you with your Dean of Admissions. Ask him if the college allows entrance credit for speech. If he says "yes," then ask him if the fact is stated in the catalog. If he says that it is not so stated, then urge him to see that the error is corrected. (There are many such errors.) If his answer is that entrance credit is not allowed, then please make an appointment with him and see if you can accomplish with conviction and persuasion that which is a noble objective.

EVOLUTION OF THE SPEECH MECHANISM

RAYMOND CARHART
Northwestern University

THE story of the evolution of the larynx and adjacent structures has become familiar through Negus' reports of his exhaustive and comprehensive study of the larynx.[1] While recognizing the value of his contribution, we must remember that Negus, in limiting himself to certain peripheral speech organs, does not give a complete picture of the evolution of the human speech mechanism. Nor does he always relate his findings to animal forms directly ancestral to man.

The present paper is a summary attempting to give a coördinated long-time view of the evolution of the peripheral speech organs, of the ear, and of those cerebral areas most important in speech. This information is assembled in a chronological table showing the history of the various structures considered. The succeeding paragraphs amplify briefly the facts appearing in condensed form in this chronological table (Table I). Both table and explanatory material trace phylogenetic stages. Both deal with the animal forms ancestral to man and with the degree of development which at each stage characterized the parts of the speech mechanism. As such, both rely heavily on information taken from the files of the paleontologist.

[1] V. E. Negus, *The Mechanism of the Larynx*, (London: William Heinemann Ltd., 1929).

The line of vertebrate evolution leading eventually to modern man begins with the ostracoderms,[2] those jawless fishes similar to lampreys and hagfishes which can be traced some 400,000,000 years into the past. Springing from the jawless fishes during the late Silurian and early Devonian geological periods came the early sharks. Later in the Devonian there derived from early sharks the so-called "bony fishes," of which the extinct lobe-finned crossopterygians were one group. These early lobe-finned fishes were capable of air-breathing and were the stock from which developed amphibians as well as modern lungfishes. Then, during the later Pennsylvanian times, early reptiles evolved from existing amphibians. Subsequently, mammal-like reptiles (typified by *Cynognathus*) diverged from the main reptilian stem and, in turn, gave rise to all later mammals. Thus it is probable that by about 55,000,000 years ago there had appeared the mammalian arboreal insectivores who were forerunners of the primate stock, which stock today includes lemurs, *Tarsius*, monkeys, apes, and man. At an unknown but later time the direct ancestors of man diverged from the other primate branches. At present, fossil man can be traced back between 500,000 and 1,000,000 years to *Pithecanthropus erectus* (the Java ape-man). More recent human species have been discovered, these fossil forms probably leading more or less directly to Neanderthal man. Finally, although it is not known just what relation *Homo Sapiens* bears to Neanderthal man, remains of essentially modern men are found dating back some 30,000 years.

In discussing the phylogenetic development of the structures essential to speech, we will trace briefly the progressive changes exhibited by each structure from its first appearance until it reached a condition essentially similar to that in man. The items here dealt with are the following: the lung system, the larynx, articulatory structures, the ear, and the cortical areas related to speech. Special emphasis will be placed upon the evidence derived from human fossils regarding recent changes in some of these structures.

Early "bony-fishes" possessed the simplest and most ancient air-breathing lungs.[3] This early lung system consisted of a simple, soft-walled tube branching ventrally from the pharynx and bifurcating to end in two membranous, slightly convoluted sacs (Fig. 1). It was

[2] A. S. Romer, *Man and the Vertebrates*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933). See for full discussion of vertebrate evolution.

[3] Romer, *op. cit.*, 33–34.

in these sacs that most of the actual oxygen and carbon dioxide exchange occurred. This is the system found in modern lungfishes and described by Negus as pertaining to them.[4] In the subsequent transition from lobe-finned crossopterygians to amphibians, the fundamental plan of the primitive lung system was maintained. Nevertheless, in connection with more active terrestrial life, there occurred, as a result of additional convoluting of the lung sac walls, an increase in the area of the oxygen absorbent surface. Subsequently, in reptiles and in early mammals the complexity of the lung structure further increased, culminating in the elaborate arrangement typical of modern mammals and of man. However, except in a few aberrant forms off the main line leading to mammals, the fundamental ground plan found in crossopterygians remained unaltered in later forms. Thus, the human mechanism consists of two lungs joined to a single trachea.

Concurrent with the first lungs there appeared the simple sphincter valve protecting the opening from the gullet into the lung sac. This was the primitive larynx. Its characteristics, as exemplified by the lungfish, are well described by Negus,[5] who also explains the subsequent steps in the development of the complex mammalian larynx. Hence, a very brief summary is all that is in order here. At first, a sphincter ring of muscle fibers comprised the total laryngeal musculature. Later, dilator muscle fibers appeared. Next were added the beginnings of the cartilaginous framework of the larynx. This support eventually developed into the jointed cartilaginous scaffolding found in mammals. Concomitantly, there evolved the complex musculature of the mammalian larynx. As a final step in the differentiation of the anatomical characteristics found in the human larynx, the arboreal insectivores antecedent to primates probably introduced the divided thyro-arytenoid fold. Certainly, all primates possess the superior and inferior thyro-arytenoid folds resulting from such a division.

The breathing musculature encountered throughout the vertebrate series varies.[6] In primitive living air-breathers, inhalation is achieved by swallowing air. An antagonistic exhalatory mechanism, such as the exhalatory diaphragm of amphibians, is usually present. In some reptiles rudiments of a suction mechanism are found, rib movement being used. When the mammalian stage is reached, one

[4] Negus, *op. cit.*, 4, 47–48 and 182.
[5] Negus, *op. cit.*, 3–25.
[6] Negus, *op. cit.*, 83–86 and 266.

finds both diaphragmatic and rib breathing, although it is only in the anthropoid apes and man that the upper ribs are movable.

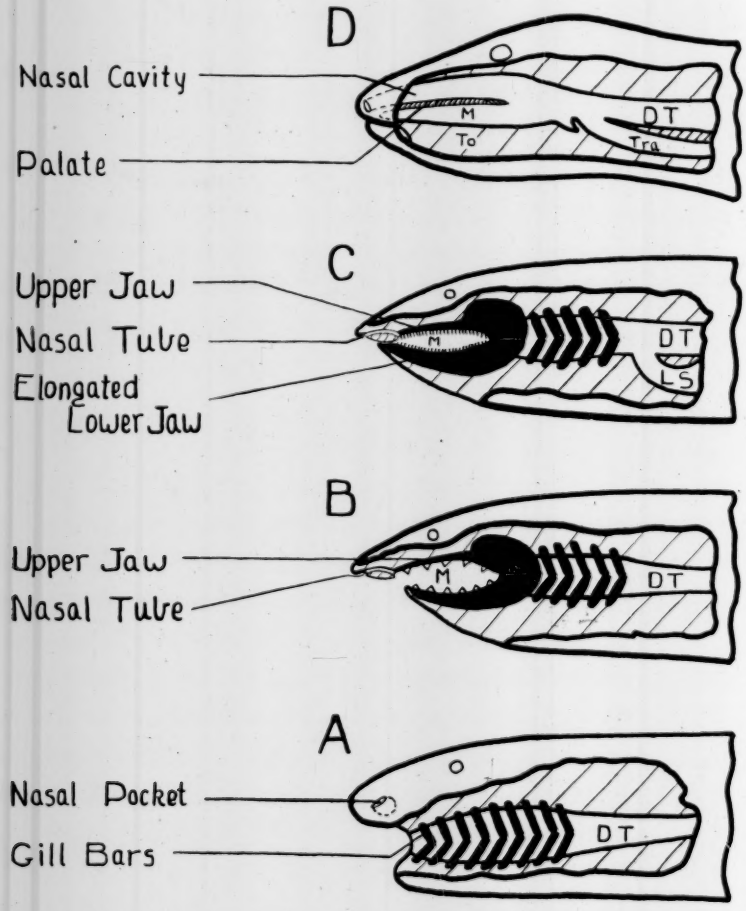

FIG. 1.—Schematic representation of some early evolutionary changes in the peripheral speech organs. The animal forms represented are A, jawless fish; B, early shark; C, lobe-finned crossopterygian; D, mammal-like reptile. In each instance a "window" reveals internal structures. Visible are the digestive tract, *DT*; the mouth, *M*; the lung sac, *LS*; the trachea, *Tra.*; and the tongue, *To*. The nasal and gill bar elements, which are also shown, lie lateral to the midline. A, B and C show transformation from gill bar to jaw elements, gill bars in their original form having disappeared between stages C and D. The nasal pocket in A is transformed into a tube in B. In C the lower jaw elongates to allow the posterior aperture of the nasal tube to open into the oral cavity. In C an air-breathing lung branches from the digestive tract. No effort is made in either C or D to represent the laryngeal valve. The jaws have been eliminated from D to facilitate showing the addition of the palatal partition and the amplification of the tongue. Exact details in the structure of soft body parts are conjectural. (Modified from Romer and Negus.)

As sense organs responsive to chemical stimuli, the nasal pockets of the jawless fishes were well developed (Fig. 1). The two nasal pockets typical of all but the most primitive jawless fishes were pits or depressions in the surface of the anterior head region.[7] In many early sharks these two nasal pockets migrated forward to the under surface of the upper jaw. In addition, they were transformed from pits into small tubes with anterior and posterior openings, the latter being situated close to the mouth opening (Fig. 1). In the lobe-finned crossopterygians an elongation of the lower jaw brought the posterior openings of the nasal pocket tubes into the mouth cavity (Fig. 1). This change was a distinct advantage in air-breathing. Because it allowed the possessor to draw air into the mouth cavity without opening the mouth, it greatly decreased the danger of shipping water while the laryngeal valve was open. Through amphibian and reptilian stages no important changes occurred in this system. Although there were minor alterations, air was still drawn through short nasal tubes into the mouth cavity. It passed back through the latter to the laryngeal aperture. However, in the mammal-like reptiles appeared the beginnings of a palatal structure (Fig. 1). This consists of a bony partition forming the roof of the mouth, and for a greater distance separating the air passage from the digestive tract. In early mammals this partition was well developed and was extended posteriorly by a muscular extension, the soft palate. This arrangement, so essential to the existence of warm-blooded forms incapable of long breathing lapses during the mastication of food, has since been variously modified. The eating, respiratory, and olfactory habits of different mammals are closely related to the structural details of the soft palate, epiglottis and ary-epiglottic folds.[8]

A true mouth cavity appeared first in early sharks and has persisted in more advanced evolutionary types. Its occurrence depended upon modifications of a pair of gill bars near the front of the head.[9] The gill bars, which were paired, were a series of skeletal supports reenforcing the tissue which bounded the gill slits of jawless ostracoderms. Each bar was made up of two cartilaginous or bony rods placed end to end in the form of a V laid on its side (Fig. 1). The two rods were jointed at their point of union. Thus, in the transition from ostracoderm to shark, all that was necessary to form jointed

[7] See Romer, *op. cit.*, 20, 24, 41, and 327–329 for details of nasal evolution.

[8] Negus, *op. cit.*, 47–67.

[9] Romer, *op. cit.*, 26–27 and 356–357.

jaws from a pair of gill bars was the enlargement of the bars, their thrusting forward into the bounding walls of the oral cavity, and the uniting of their corresponding free ends at the midline. In this way there was achieved an ample jointed support for the softer parts of the oral cavity walls. Such are the morphological details evidenced by the early sharks (Fig. 1). Concomitantly, there appeared rudimentary teeth in the form of skin denticles, or spines, covering the jaws. Subsequently, true teeth were differentiated and were set in long narrow jaws derived from both gill bar and dermal bone elements. Allowing for minor differences in structure, there was only one important modification in this arrangement prior to the advent of prehistoric man. This change occurred in the transition from reptile to mammal. The original jaw joint was altered. Certain joint bones lost their original function and became part of the middle ear ossicle chain. Otherwise, however, even in monkeys and apes comparatively long, U-shaped jaws persisted. In contrast, the modern human jaw shows distinctive features, of interest to the student of speech, the development of which can be traced in ancient man.

Going back to *Pithecanthropus erectus,* jaw fragments suggest a somewhat reduced but still apish jaw. Similar was the jaw of *Sinanthropus Pekinensis,* a human type living slightly later than the Java ape-man but in many respects comparable to him.[10] At this stage the outstanding non-human characteristics can be described by considering the mandibles. Taken together, the two mandibles formed a narrow, protruding, U-shaped lower jaw similar to that of apes.[11] From the inner surface of its receding chin there extended backward a horizontal ledge, the simian shelf, which added strength to this region (Fig. 2). The simian shelf, as the name implies, is characteristic of the apes. Another feature was the distinctly non-human origin of the genio-glossus muscle. Each genio-glossus muscle sprang from a small depression, or fossa, in the inner surface of the mandible. Moving on to the more recent Piltdown remains, essentially the same jaw structure is found. However, here the lateral expansion of the brain case attendant on cerebral enlargement resulted in a spreading of the mandibular articulations.[12] Due to this separation of its posterior portions, the mandibular arch became more V-shaped,

[10] Romer, *op. cit.,* 241–242.

[11] For a discussion of these jaw changes see E. A. Hooton, *Up from the Apes* (New York: Macmillan and Co., 1931), 168–174.

[12] Hooton, *op. cit.,* 307–308.

consequently allowing greater space for the tongue. In contrast to these early human jaws, the still later Heidelberg jaw shows distinct advances.[13] Although this jaw was still chinless, the simian shelf was gone. Still greater separation of the mandibular articulations produced a mandibular arch nearly comparable in spread to that of modern man. Also of importance was the appearance of the mylohyoid ridge and of the genial tubercles, the latter of which served as points of origin for the genio-glossus muscles. These last features suggest essentially modern tongue and mouth-floor musculatures. No important changes characterize the Neanderthal jaw.[14] To be sure, here the simian shelf was eliminated and the genial tubercles were as well developed as those of present-day man (Fig. 2). However, the final structural change in the jaw had not yet taken place. This change was the appearance of a protruding chin formed at the symphysis by bony projections on the superficial surface of the mandible.[15] This advance strengthened the mandibular symphysis while

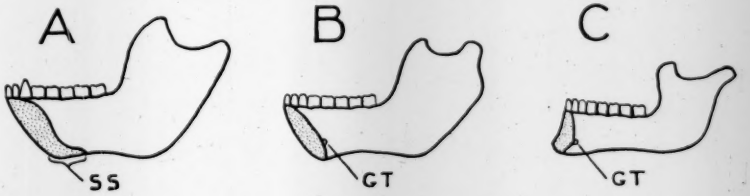

FIG. 2—Schematic saggital representation of the inside of the lower jaw to show changes in simian shelf, genial tubercle and chin. A, Java ape-man jaw (conjectural); B, Neanderthal jaw; C, Cro-Magnon jaw. The simian shelf (*SS*), found in A, has disappeared in B and C. The genial tubercle (*GT*), not present in A, is well developed in B and C. (Mostly modified from Romer.)

allowing ample tongue room despite further jaw shortening (Fig. 2). It was a characteristic of the Cro-Magnards, who are the earliest known modern men. In summary, then, it may be said that important jaw changes affecting speech can be traced through successive human species. These changes involved widening of the mandibular arch, loss of the simian shelf, appearance of genial tubercles, and development of the chin.

The tongue, the evolution of which was associated with habits of licking, tasting, mastication and sucking, was at best rudimentary

[13] Hooton, *op. cit.*, 317. Also Romer, *op. cit.*, Fig. 190.

[14] Hooton, *op. cit.*, 328.

[15] Hooton, *op. cit.*, 173.

in the fish stage.[16] Nevertheless, it was well developed from amphibians onward. Probably the mobile and active tongue of higher primates should be thought of as serving sucking and mastication needs, although in man changes in jaw structure facilitated its use as an articulatory organ.

Muscled lips are a mammalian characteristic, and even here fully mobile lip structure is limited to monkeys, apes and man.[17] Full lip development, involving a complete orbicularis oris muscle, was probably associated with the longer suckling period and later weaning typical of these higher primates.

Up to this point the structures discussed are parts of the peripheral speech mechanism. Evolutionary changes in the ear and cerebral hemispheres will now be briefly mentioned. These organs, too, were necessary for the racial development of speech and oral language.

There is nothing in the structure of the human ear to differentiate it critically from the auditory receptors of other placental mammals. The mammalian inner ear derived from the simpler inner ear typical of fishes. In fishes it was a balancing organ, capable at most of response to a limited few vibratory stimuli. However, in the more primitive terrestrial animals the lacuna, branching from the saccule, was the forerunner of the complex mammalian cochlea. Concomitant with cochlear amplification can be traced changes in middle ear structure.[18] These changes began in amphibians. Here the construction was that of an eardrum on the surface of the body connected to the inner ear by a single, bar-like stapes, the transformed hyo-mandibular bone of the fish. The mammal-like reptiles altered this arrangement only in position, the eardrum and external end of the stapes having migrated to a point near the quadrate and articular bones of the reptilian jaw joint. In early mammals the quadrate and articular bones lost their connection with the jaw joint and became the malleus and incus of the ossicular chain. Simultaneously, the eardrum sank into the skull and was connected with the surrounding air by means of the cavity of the outer ear. By means of the middle ear changes mentioned, there was achieved the efficient transformation of airborne vibrations into the liquid-borne vibrations needed to stimulate

[16] Negus, *op. cit.*, 51.

[17] Hooton, *op. cit.*, 182.

[18] W. K. Gregory, *Man's Place Among The Anthropoids*, (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1934), 43–45. Also Romer, *op. cit.*, 308–314.

the organs of Corti. It is interesting to note that in man the transformation ratio is so adjusted as to yield nearly total energy transmission.

It was, of course, the tremendous amplification of man's cerebral hemispheres that was the ultimate determinant in the development of human speech, a skill possessed by no other animal type. Tracing through the evolutionary scale from jawless ostracoderm to mammal, one finds progressive expansion of the cerebral hemispheres from small and rudimentary brain areas to extensive structures. However, it is in the primates that the ratio of neopallium to total brain volume is highest. In the lower primates the greatest brain increases occur in the visual and motor areas, the auditory areas being amplified to a lesser extent.[19] In monkeys, apes and man there are additional advances in motor and sensory areas, but the outstanding feature is the increased size of the association areas. Clark, for example, says, "The expansion involves almost entirely the 'association areas,' for within the limits of the Anthropoidea there is but little relative variation of the histological extent of the sensory and motor areas." [20]

Human fossils tell an interesting story of the final stages in cerebral growth. Endocranial casts of the Java ape-man indicate a brain pattern which must be classed as human. To be sure, in size his brain was between that of modern man and his ape cousins.[21] Nevertheless, it was not merely an enlarged ape's brain. Of special interest to students of speech are the following facts regarding this brain. The temporal lobes, associated with hearing, and the frontal lobes, involved in higher mental processes, were expanded. Furthermore, a rudimentary motor speech center (Broca's area) appeared for the first time. Despite these facts, the Java ape-man's brain was much inferior to that of later human types. Looking to other human fossils, there appears a rather definite progression in the development of the cerebral hemispheres. For example, total brain volume increased from about 940 cc. for the Java ape-man to about 1,500 cc. for the average male Neanderthal. Concomitantly, the frontal lobes and other association areas were enlarged, and the temporal lobes were greatly expanded. However, although in some cases cranial capacity

[19] W. E. LeGros Clark, *Early Forerunners of Man*, (Baltimore: W. Wood and Co., 1934), 143: Hooton, *op. cit.*, 153–154: and F. Tilney, *The Brain from Ape to Man*, (New York: P. W. Hoeber, 1928).

[20] Clark, *op. cit.*, 216.

[21] Tilney, *op. cit.*, 875–884.

TABLE I

SYNOPSIS OF THE MAJOR STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPEECH MECHANISM

Animal Form *	*Lungs*†	*Larynx*†	*Articulator*†	*Ear*†	*Brain*†
Modern Man; 30,000 (Cro-Magnon appeared at very end of Pleistocene Epoch of Cenozoic Era).	Approximately same.	Approximately same.	Wide, shortened jaw with chin.	Approximately same.	Highly developed visual, auditory, motor, and association areas; Broca's speech area.
Neanderthal Man; lived from 30,000 to 70,000 years ago (Pleistocene Epoch of Cenozoic Era).	Approximately same.	Approximately same.	Chinless jaw; no simian shelf; genial tubercles; V-shaped mandibular arch.	Approximately same.	Broca's speech area; whole brain similar to but simpler than that of modern man.
Pithecanthropus erectus, Java ape-man; 500,000 to 1,000,000 (Pleistocene Epoch of Cenozoic Era).	Approximately same except for movable upper ribs.	Approximately same.	Human teeth; narrow, chinless jaw; cramped but very mobile tongue; fully mobile lips.	Approximately same.	Rudimentary speech area; fuller temporal and frontal lobes; whole neopallium much enlarged.
Arboreal insectivores, (forerunners of the primates); 55,000,000 (Eocene Epoch of Cenozoic Era).	Involved structure typical of warm-blooded mammals. Diaphragm.	True and false vocal folds.	Partially developed lips; improved soft palate.	Cochlea well developed; ossicle chain; eardrum within skull; external ear.	Highly developed cerebral hemispheres, especially visual, motor, and, to lesser extent, auditory areas.
Cynognathus, a mammal-like reptile; 190,000,000 (Triassic Period of Mesozoic Era).	Greater lung complexity. Rib breathing.	Jointed framework; complex muscular system.	Large nasal cavity separated from oral cavity by palatal partition.	Eardrum and stapes migrated prior to acquisition of other ossicles.	Slow cerebral increase.
Early reptiles; 260,000,000 (Pennsylvanian Period of Paleozoic Era).	Lungs more complex.	Cartilaginous framework improved.	Little change.	Little change.	Slow cerebral increase.

Amphibians; 330,000,000 (Devonian Period of Paleozoic Era).	Lungs became more complex losing simple sac form.	Unjointed lateral cartilages; later divided to form arytenoid and cricoid units.	Mobile tongue.	Stapes and superficial eardrum; small lacuna anticipating cochlea.	Slow cerebral increase.
Crosspterygians, lobe-finned fishes; 340,000,000 (Devonian Period of Paleozoic Era).	Two simple sacs connected by common passage to throat region of alimentary canal.	Simple sphincter valve, probably without cartilaginous framework.	Lower jaw elongated so that hind opening of each nasal tube opened into mouth cavity.	No change.	Probably very little change.
Early sharks; 360,000,000 (Silurian Period of Paleozoic Era).	No trace.	No trace.	Nasal pockets transformed into tubes; true mouth cavity as result of jaws derived from a front pair of gill bars; first teeth (skin denticles).	Inner ear a balancing organ with 3 semicircular canals.	Very rudimentary but somewhat amplified cerebral hemispheres.
Ostracoderms, jawless fishes; 400,000,000 (Ordovician Period of Paleozoic Era).	No trace.	No trace.	Nasal pockets; gill system from which many parts of peripheral speech mechanism were derived.	Inner ear a balancing organ with 1 or 2 semicircular canals.	Hind and mid brain; cerebral hemispheres very rudimentary.

* In addition to each animal form, its approximate antiquity in years and the geological period in which it first appeared are noted. This information was compiled from material appearing in C. Cronies and E. C. Krumbein, *Down to Earth*, (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936) and Romer, *op. cit.*

† New structures or changes which appeared between animal forms listed here are noted in connection with the nearest animal form.

exceeded that of many modern races, cerebral organization up to and including Neanderthal man was simpler than that of *Homo sapiens*. Nevertheless, in addition to the increased sensory discrimination and mental ability which progressive cerebral amplification suggests, extinct human species evidenced two advances which were important for speech. One is the fact that the motor speech center became more clearly defined as time passed. In Piltdown man, for example, Broca's area was fairly prominent.[22] Moreover, in Neanderthal endocranial casts " . . . may be recognized the pars orbicularis, pars triangularis and pars basalis, all characteristic features of Broca's area in *Homo sapiens*." [23] In the second place, aside from its relation to hearing, temporal lobe expansion was correlated with the jaw-spreading attendant on the previously mentioned separation of the mandibular articulations. Finally, it should be repeated that while advanced stages of cerebral evolution can be traced through successive human types, no extinct human species possessed a brain quite comparable to that found in the most advanced human races of today.

In conclusion, the various structures essential to human speech appeared at different points along the line of evolution leading to man. The ear and most parts of the peripheral speech mechanism were well developed by the time the mammalian stage was reached. Nevertheless, a few important changes in the peripheral speech organs occurred in man's primate ancestors or even in prehistoric man. In contrast, while the foundations were laid in pre-primate stages, the final central nervous system developments underlying speech occurred at primate and, most particularly, at prehistoric human levels.

[22] Tilney, *op. cit.*, 888.
[23] Tilney, *op. cit.*, 899–901.

THE INTERPRETATIVE SYMBOL

BRYNG BRYNGELSON
University of Minnesota

SPEECH teachers are well acquainted with visible and audible symbols. These have been defined, classified, and discussed in many textbooks. We recognize that the listeners, whether in a class or in a small group, are first impressed by the physical habits of the speaker. We respond to muscle tensions before the person speaks. Ofttimes we have formed such definite impressions from the visible symbol, that irrespective of the subsequent stimulation by means of the audible symbol (voice), we find the empathy already set for the entire performance. This will to some extent depend on the coördination of body and voice experienced by the speaker.

There is another, more basic, aspect of the act of confrontation in a speech situation. This feature has been wóefully neglected in the teaching of speech. Names for abstract concepts are difficult to coin. I have attached to this concept the name, "the interpretative symbol." Emerson once said, "What you are speaks so loud that I can't hear what you say." This utterance strikes the key-note meaning of the interpretative symbol. Years ago I read a book called *Man and His Message*. The point of view expressed in this book was this: What one says and how one says it is determined by one's inner reactions to self and others.

This idea has stimulated me to look at speech not only as a personality trait, but as a profound index to character, emotional balance, inner calm or disruption. Speech *is* that tell-tale process of communicating hopes, desires, conflicts, and philosophies of living to one's fellows. It follows, then, that if speech is basically emotional, that if what one says (message) is prompted by the way one feels inwardly, by what one is in terms of security, speech teachers might seriously consider an interpretative approach. With this in mind, a teacher would interest the students in a study of speech from the point of view of its growth and emotional evolvement, as seen through the thoughts, feelings, and philosophies expressed in talking.

If we are very honest and objective about our own speech, must we not admit that we talk to "grind axes" and parade our egos? Do we not talk to make ourselves better thought of among our fellows? Do we not talk to cover up our inferiorities, sensitivities, weaknesses, etc. An observing person interested in motives must have sometime

questioned the altruistic goals, factitious reasonings, rationalizations and projections of many politicians and convention orators. These folk mean well. They do the best they can with the insight they possess. One cannot condemn them, only forgive them, for they do not know the basis of their prejudice, their emotional inadequacy, and their deceiving manners.

If public speech is to function in society on a more honest basis than in the past, knowledge of human mechanisms and behavior must be disseminated. To this program of social reconstruction a considerable contribution can be made by our speech classes.

Just how should we begin? Instructors who are more or less aware of their own inadequacies will be more amenable to this suggested approach than those who have escaped an opportunity to study themselves as behaving organisms. The student should be looked upon as a person, whose background, habits, experiences, prejudices, and emotions play a part in the manner of his verbal expression or lack of expression. If he is overtly a defensive speaker or an inwardly withdrawn type, cause and effect relations should be studied and examined. This is a task for both the instructor and the student.

The aim of such an approach should be to help the student gain insight into his own development as a person, to help him see himself as a reacting organism in a speaking situation. He should be made aware that his speech patterns are symbolic of emotional adjustments, that his symbolic expression is related to his early environment and experiences.

Obviously, then, the task is two-fold from the beginning. First, there should be informative discussions by the instructor on elementary psychologic facts of behavior. This should include an analysis of human mechanisms and basic drives, and a well oriented presentation of factors in the formation of emotional insecurities, their defenses through speech, and their obvious manifestations in stage fright, self-consciousness and lack of confidence. Second, there should be an autobiographic presentation of each member of the class, aimed to uncover the possible causes of malfunctioning of the speech process before a group. Each person's real speech problem will, then, be known, and the need for a humanistic approach to its solution will be self-evident. Whatever the problem the student has uncovered, he now has an opportunity of socializing himself with it in the presence of twenty or thirty class companions together with an understanding, charitable, and sympathetic instructor. The student now

can be looked upon for the first time as a person and not merely as a figure of muscles and as an audible machine.

It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss further the details of classroom procedures. The techniques of instruction employed would depend a good deal on the instructor and the interests of the students. I am merely proposing that we in speech be aware of the meaning of speech as interpreted symbolically by the person. We know a good deal about human behavior, yet we rarely use our knowledge when it comes to speech training. It is quite possible through the application of our psychologic knowledge to educate a speech student to such perfect freedom from self-consciousness that he will actually be able to stand before any audience and say what he believes to be reasonable in the light of his honest examination of the subject. He may even develop to the point where he can do this easily, frankly, and free from unwholesome deceit, arrogance, or fear.

Such an uninhibited person in a society like ours will indeed be rare, for he will state his pre-judgment in his introduction, he will present his ideas not as panaceas but as of possible value in the building of a civilization more adequately founded on truth. Truth emerges more slowly than "movements" and revolutions, and more sanely than "isms." A beginning to such a society based on truth can be made in our own field of speech.

The more experience one has with this approach, the more it appeals as a basic concept with which to re-define our aims and objectives in speech education. Too long have we simply said, "Speech is a means of social control," and too little have we reflected what kind of control speech exercises. Certainly no one could honestly consider its current manifestations intelligent. Carefully surveying our present speaking environment, I question that it is possible to control others intelligently until we can exert such control over ourselves. Public discussions are too often merely an exhibition of the participant's feeling of inferiority. This seems to me to be a defenseless predicament for civilized mankind. To know the student's interpretation of himself through the process of unearthing his frustration, guilt, sensitivity, debauched scale of values, or deflated ego will make it easier for the instructor to evaluate more adequately the student's needs. Then if the instructor will allow the student to verbalize these basic facts as revealed by the autobiographic method, the student will gradually be able to free himself of the

entangling alliances between the devil and the false prophets within him.

The instructor, having followed some such procedure as indicated, will better be able to interpret the message because the man behind the message will be more adequately understood. The instructor's critical judgment will then offer suggestions that pertain not to symptoms but to basic causes. One can then be more certain that emotional and mental maturation is not interfered with, but instead hastened. My guess is that when we orient the student on the emotional level, many of our bugaboo problems in speech will appear in a different light. I dare say many of the terrifying tensions, blushings, and random movements which have puzzled speech teachers in the past will disappear in direct relationship to the student's attainment of emotional security.

You ask, "Does not the success of such an approach to speech depend on the qualifications of the staff?" Yes, and I shall suggest how a beginning can be made with any group of instructors. Speech hygiene should begin with the teacher. I intimated earlier that an adequate examination of the speech student's Interpretative Symbol can be made only by an emotionally adequate teacher. I suggest that one of the most wholesome exercises an instructional staff could ever participate in would be self-analysis. If you are church minded, you might call it a confessional. For a staff of ten, this would take three or four meetings. It would be time well spent in preparation for the emotional hygiene approach to speech in the classroom. Difficult for us grown-ups to do? Yes, indeed! The older one gets, the more deeply rooted become one's habits of defense, the more inclined one is to harbor one's emotional ills, weaknesses and sensitivities as being no one else's business. It is true that very few of us have suffered outward scorn for what we have kept to ourselves, but few of us have escaped the inward turmoil necessitated by the energetic struggle to defend ourselves on the level of speech. And if any of us have been aware of being disliked, it has not been on the basis of our basic potentials of humility, confidence, and honesty, but on our behavior patterns of defense to our insecurities on the level of feeling. Once having rid ourselves of ruses and psychological masks, we can hardly conceive of ever disliking anyone else. A program of verbalization in which the correct material is spoken can be pursued to the end that while we may not hope for a great change in our behavior, we at least may attain a more honest and adequate adjustment to our peculiarities. You will agree, I think, that it is far

more intelligent to advertise objectively our own weak spots than to have them mulled over in the speech of others. Gossip may be an enjoyable pastime, but it has never held a position of dignity in our human relations.

With frankness, objectivity, and honesty with ourselves as teachers, we can hope for more enjoyable human contacts with our students. Their verbalizations anent personal problems will be made more effective once the teacher has uncovered his own inadequacies. Subsequent to the interpretative approach herein suggested, speech exercises and projects which formerly were the sole content of a speech course can well be introduced. I believe that with greater freedom from emotional tensions, students will anticipate more pleasant experiences in debate, interpretation, and dramatics. Public discussions will be less motivated by hidden motives, frustrated hopes, and personally cherished family "skeletons." We shall have less rationalized and projected speech and a more serious concern for the basic principles of truth underlying public questions.

In this discussion I have questioned the traditional procedures of conducting courses in the fundamentals of speech. I have nevertheless tried to be sincere in my objective. I have attempted to solicit your concern over thousands of young lives, future public men of affairs, passing through your speech courses. I believe emotional hygiene to be their greatest need ,and the symbolic understanding of speech their greatest hope for a more rational and peaceful society.

SELECTION OF MATERIALS FOR PLAY PRODUCTION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

CHRISTINA B. ANDREINI
Stanford University

THE junior high schools have generally been known to lack suitable materials for dramatic production. There are two possible reasons for this deficiency: the first may be that playwrights have not recognized this as a possible remunerative field of endeavor, and the second that the qualities and characteristics necessary to make a drama suitable for this age level have not been understood. For what, then, do the teachers of drama in these junior high schools seek, what do they find satisfactory, and if suitable material cannot

be found, what is their solution to the problem of finding a play for production?

To answer these questions I have been aided by the junior high schools of the state of California through their coöperation in answering a questionnaire designed to these ends. Appended to the answered questionnaires have been notes and even letters stressing the need for more possible material. In some cases there have been urgent pleas for immediate help, showing that this seemingly impossible situation of play selection is critical.

The first part of the form has to do with the length of the play, the type of costume, and the type of play preferred, as is described below. The numerals opposite the divisions indicate the number of schools which favor each.

Length of Play Preferred:	
One-acts	63
Three-acts	8
Without preference	11
Type of Costume Preferred:	
Historical	3
Fantastic	16
Modern	59
Without preference	13
Preferring two types of costumes	9
Type of Play Preferred:	
Comedies	76
Tragedies	1
Fantasies	21
Pageants	12
Without any preference	3
Preferring two or three types of plays	27

The consensus is that one-act plays are the most preferred for the adolescent level; but there are a few, eight junior high schools in California, that insist on three-act plays. The purpose for which they are to be used may be a factor when length is to be considered. Probably most of the plays are produced for the student body in assemblies. For these a single one-act is the most valuable, in that it is not so time-consuming. It also requires less time in rehearsals. Nearly every school, however, presents one or more full length programs a year for public performance. Most people find that groups of one-act plays produced frequently for a paying audience enjoy less success than do three-act dramas. It may be that the audience enjoys having its attention focused upon one theme through an hour and

three quarters more than having its interest shifted and re-aroused within a short period of time; or it may be that a group of one-act plays is not usually as well executed as three-act plays because of the extra burden which is placed upon the director in more numerous rehearsals, various groups of actors to manage, and more preparations and arrangements for settings. Most directors prefer small casts for convenience; however, if box-office receipts are to be considered, then larger casts are indispensable, particularly when parents, relatives, and friends compose most of the audience.

The types of costumes which are most preferred for use are of course closely linked with the type of plays selected for production. Comedies in modern dress have been the choice of the majority of schools, and some have preferred fantasies. If we accept the results of this survey and produce the types of plays in relation to the selection herein, we would be producing two fantasies to every seven comedies in modern dress.

The ideal play, then, would be a realistic modern comedy which, obviously, should not contain love in any form other than chivalrous, adventurous, and fanciful romance. The characters should be broad, and possess pronounced traits, for children of this age have not sufficient experience to depict subtle characters without tending to mediocrity. If there is a lesson to be taught, let it be subtle, so as not to be offensive.

The use of fantasies has been decried by some teachers either because the children have out-grown that type of thing or because the children cannot understand it. But is it not true that even adults enjoy the fantastic? As to the student's understanding of it, perhaps, proper care has not been given to the preparation and production. It is recognized by many directors that a fantasy can be a thing of beauty; however, in planning an expensive production, it should be remembered that the audience for this will be select and so, consequently, will not contribute greatly towards a box-office triumph.

Appropriate short plays, either historical or modern, are forever being sought for presentation at assemblies on holiday occasions such as Columbus Day, Washington's Birthday, Easter, Christmas, and Thanksgiving. These should contain less obvious moralizing and yet characterized by clean fun and living.

The following is a list of 41 plays of the 260 that have been successfully produced in the junior high schools of California. From those who use a suggestion from this brief list, I shall be eager to

hear the results of the production. The numeral opposite the title indicates the number of times each has been used.

Elmer	27
The Pampered Darling	19
Not Quite Such a Goose	16
Why the Chimes Rang	15
The Stolen Prince	9
Penrod	8
The Tantrum	8
The Estabrook Nieces	7
The Knave of Hearts	7
Six Who Pass While the Lentiles Boil	7
Bill of Fare	5
Buddy Buys an Orchid	5
Growing Pains	5
Sauce for the Goslings	5
Ten Minutes by the Clock	5

SAMPLINGS OF THE OTHERS

Daddy Long Legs	4
Birthday of the Infanta	4
Imagination	4
The Lost Princess	4
Pals	4
Three Pills in a Bottle	4
His Majesty Sleeps	3
Tom Sawyer	3
Spreading the News	3
Pearls	3
The Ghost Story	3
False Pretenses	2
Guki the Moon Boy	2
The Bellman of Mons	2
The Jewel Boy of Florence	2
Three's a Crowd	2
Young America	2
Exception	1
The Ivory Door	1
Keeping Nora Happy	1
One Egg	1
Pierrot's Mother	1
Alice in Wonderland	1
Billie	1
The Dyspeptic Ogre	1
Thank You Doctor	1

Some of the characteristics of the ten most produced plays are interesting, especially as to the number of acts, type of costuming, type of play, author, and publishers. Only one play listed in the ten examples is not a one-act, six provide for modern costuming, two for historic costuming, and two for fantastic costumes, seven are comedies, and the remaining three are fantasies. The dominance of one-acts, modern costumes, and comedies resemble the answers to these three divisions as represented in the preceding form.

The plays of Beatrice McNeil seem to be most popular and consequently most appropriate for junior high school use, as is indicated by the appearance of three of her plays among these first ten having the greatest number of performances—*Elmer, The Pampered Darling,* and *The Tantrum* being hers.

The three most produced plays are published by Walter H. Baker. Out of the ten most popular plays, Baker has published five, Samuel French three, Longmans Green and Company one, and Stewart Kidd Company one. In dramatic circles on the West Coast, especially in college and little theatre movements, Samuel French seems to be the favored publisher. Could it be possible that the junior high schools prefer the plays of Walter H. Baker Company because they publish more plays appropriate for the adolescent level and that a section in their catalogue is devoted to play suggestions for the junior high schools?

A new practice has arisen in many schools in the last few years due to the limitation of desirable materials. This is the writing of plays for their own use by the faculty and the students. Such a practice eliminates royalties and combines another creative art with that of the drama. It is almost surprising that so many schools are following this trend. Out of the 82 schools, more than half—that is 48—have written one or more plays. Some schools have even published their original manuscripts so that other schools might benefit by their efforts. Out of the 48 schools that have written their manuscripts, and in addition to those who have published their works, there are 15 schools whose manuscripts are available for publication or for production if proper arrangements are made.

The most unique situation in the dramatic set-up and in play writing is that in practice at the Memorial Junior High School of San Diego, California. In addition to the many original plays which are written and produced there by the drama department, there are others which are the combined work of various related departments of the school in productions which utilize other fine arts. The out-

come is a type of Gilbert and Sullivan musical which stresses fun and jollity.

The procedure is this. First, the faculty decides on a theme. After frequent conferences of all the producing departments, art, music, shop, and speech, the theme is announced to the school. The representative teachers of the different subjects decide which dances and songs suggested by the director can best be done with their material, facilities, and youngsters.

Then in addition there is the interesting project which includes other courses in the curriculum. In a meeting of the building chairmen of English, social sciences, languages, and other departments, the director sugests ways in which the theme of the production can best be applied to the individual courses of study. The chairmen outline the courses of study for their departments. After the end of ten weeks, they report in a meeting the means by which the theme was developed and how successful the project has been. In this way for a ten-week period 1800 students and a staff of sixty-two faculty members have been working on and correlating one idea into the course of study.

Before contemplating such a program, one should consider the statement made by Mrs. Sue Earnest, Director of Drama at the Memorial Junior High School, that a thing of this sort means hours upon hours of extra work—especially for the faculty members. But she hastily adds, "When we are through, we feel that we have done something very fine."

PURPOSEFUL HIGH SCHOOL DRAMATICS

KATHARINE ANNE OMMANNEY
North High School, Denver, Colorado

HIGH school dramatics is no longer an educational frill. Having survived the depression, it has increased in importance until today it is recognized by administrators and public as one of the most vital phases of the secondary curriculum. This recognition places a serious responsibility upon us high school dramatic teachers to make our work in the classroom and on the stage purposeful as well as popular. This duty to our students and the public is threefold:—we must develop appreciative, sympathetic, and attractive boys and girls; we must present productions of high artistic and

entertainment value; and we must stimulate a lasting love of the theatre which will ultimately raise the standards of the American drama of the stage, screen, and air. Fortunately, the instructive enthusiasm of adolescents for acting gives us a motive power which can be utilized to carry out any purpose we determine upon, and we teachers are to blame if our results do not measure up to our opportunities.

Let us consider our responsibility to our students. In the first place, even after a semester's work, they should appreciate good dramatic entertainment in any form, because they can evaluate it properly. This purpose can be realized by careful study of the drama—its literary form, its interpretation and its production. In the second place, they should be more sympathetic human beings, because they have learned to analyze the reactions of men and women under crucial situations. This purpose can be stressed not only in intelligently reading and witnessing good plays, but in the careful character study necessary to effective interpretation. In the third place, they should be more attractive individuals because they have learned how to use their voices and bodies correctly and beautifully and have acquired some standards of good taste in conduct and dress.

It is in the daily classwork that our responsibility to our students is to be met. For years before the word "progressive" loomed large on the pedagogical horizon, we speech people had realized the ideal of meeting young people at their own level and satisfying their immediate needs while developing their character and personality. Some teachers went too far, even as the "progressives" are doing today, in making a course popular by satisfying the exhibition complex instead of real needs, and wasting time in aimless discussion and activity. Such inexcusable debasement of a course so gripping in its appeal as dramatics can no longer be justified by the plea of increasing membership in the speech department. Most of our classes are far larger than they should be anyway, and the subject matter must be stiffened, clarified, and intensified if worth while results are to be obtained.

What should the dramatics course include? Naturally I am speaking from my own conviction, which may well be "traditional," that every secondary subject should furnish meat and not meringue, and that dramatics should be a main course and not just dessert at the educational feast. My aims have been to develop the character and personality of the students, to encourage an enduring appreciation of the drama as literature and a means of popular entertain-

ment, and to offer sound technical training and experience in acting and producing plays. The last aim may well include the first two, but too great emphasis on acting can lead to the exploitation of the talented students, who can shine without working hard. Intensive reading and technical study can force them to labor and give the backward students a chance to accomplish by hard work much of value out of the course even if they can never be real actors. Of course, all three phases of the work are given simultaneously, but greater emphasis can be placed on each phase at different periods in the course.

For example, the personality and character development can be taken up in definite discussion at the beginning of the course and then such traits as dependability, promptness, good sportsmanship, tact, courtesy, insisted upon in every project taken up. The technical work in voice, diction, and pantomime can be stressed as a practical means of self-improvement, but it can also be the first step in teaching acting, which is always the most popular part of the course. The appreciation of the drama can come indirectly through the interpretation of interesting rôles, and very directly in the study of plays and the analyzing of stage, screen, and radio productions.

It may be old-fashioned to do so, but I am still demanding notebooks including detailed reports of plays read outside of class, because I know of no other way to enforce intelligent reading of the printed page; I am also guilty of taking up literary style, including figures of speech, as well as plot construction, theme development, and dialogue, situation, and character presentation. Incidentally, my students tell me again and again that they thoroughly enjoy this intensive literary study and that it carries over into all their reading.

As a part of the appreciation of play production, the making of model sets teaches the principles of the use of color and line, and often inspires interest in achieving unity, balance, and harmony in home decoration, as the work in make-up and costuming encourages improvement in personal appearance. Thus all phases of the classwork point toward personality development but culminate in the production of one-act plays and the presentation of platform reviews in which dramatic talent and analytical powers can find expression before an audience.

A possible year's work in dramatics might include the following general scheme. After a preliminary study of the values of the course and its aims, about six weeks of reading one-act plays aloud can teach the fundamentals of dramatic literature while familiarizing

the students with elementary character delineation, stage movement, and pointing of lines. Definite work with pantomine should follow stressing facial and bodily expressiveness thru graceful and effective gesture and movement. This can be followed by technical voice production encouraging relaxing of the vocal apparatus, clarity of enunciation and beauty of tone, leading up to a discussion of correct diction and culminating in drill work in speech and detailed interpretation of dramatic passages and further reading of plays. The actual presentation of a series of worth-while one-act plays should be the climax of the technical work; each student should be assigned a good part, either suited to his personality or so contrasted that acting it will develop his latent abilities; sufficient make-up, costuming, and stage setting should be urged to present the play itself effectively. I have found that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in having advanced students direct these plays while I assist as far as my time and energy permits. An invited audience should see these plays, the best of which can be produced later in assemblies and before P.T.A. groups. Often students become so enthusiastic with this part of the work that they form outside clubs and present plays on their own responsibility in church and social activities of the community. I always close the first semester's work with a careful study of Josephine Preston Peabody's *The Piper*, for in its beauty of style and thought, it offers a fine opportunity for crystalyzing the character development as well as the appreciative work.

The second semester should include at least six weeks' work with Shakespeare, for no dramatic student should leave high school without learning to love and interpret the world's greatest man of the theatre. We read one entire play selected by the class, in great detail, and then each student presents a monologue and takes part in a scene from any other of the great Bard's works. Frequently we have given radio and assembly programs from this part of the course. The technical production work follows with reports and discussion, demonstrations and lectures, on such topics as directing, costuming, make-up and stage lighting. Each student makes a model set which he demonstrates in our electrically equipped stage. Formerly every student wrote a one-act play, the best being produced by the author, but I have not included this phase for several years. The course ends with a platform review of a favorite long play which includes a discussion of the author, his style, and his theme and the reading of as many passages as time permits. During this semester,

frequent opportunities are afforded for the presenting of programs and plays before outside groups.

Thus in a year's work, the students have been exposed to all phases of the theatre and theoretically at least, the writing of dramatic criticisms of plays and pictures, the keeping of an organized scrapbook covering everything of theatrical interest, the outside reading of plays, biographies, and technical books, and the classwork does arouse a real interest in the drama and dramatic activity. Naturally, I should love to have any number of advanced classes in acting, play production, Shakespeare and modern drama, but the one year's work carries over into community and university considerable dramatic activity of a high order, and so I sincerely believe my responsibility to the students has been met, so far as large classes, limited equipment, heavy school responsibilities, and heterogeneous types will permit. Most of the students claim to have found something to enjoy thoroughly during the course and all of them show definite development in some direction. The talented ones, however, must have further opportunity for experience which comes in the extra-curricular activities.

It is in this extra-curricular activity that our responsibility to the public is to be met. This responsibility lies in giving first-class productions of good plays, well acted and produced. I feel strongly that no program should go on the stage or the air that is not excellent entertainment,—it may be serious or comic, difficult or simple, but not necessarily educational and never pedagogical. The standards set up in the dramatics classwork must be met in the public productions so far as is possible with a high school cast and audience, and that need not mean on a low artistic level. With their unbounded enthusiasm, their responsiveness to direction, their devotion to ideals, adolescent young people are limited only by their physical appearance, and sincere emphasis upon the play itself and not upon exploitation of brilliant actors can practically wipe out the physical handicap. Dramatic clubs with difficult try-outs and a strictly limited membership can furnish the most artistic and "highbrow" of dramatic fare, if the proceeds are not to be taken over for band uniforms, athletic equipment, and school publications. As soon as the financial success becomes paramount standards are likely to drop; but even so there is no reason why badly written plays should be badly produced by badly trained casts in any modern high school. The days of just putting on a play have gone forever, thank Heaven, and the public

has a right to expect finished, high class entertainment from our public schools. On the whole, I believe they are getting it.

Of course this production work brings up all the really serious problems facing high school directors—the scarcity of first class plays suitable for student participation, limited lighting and staging equipment, lack of time, energy, and auditorium facilities for proper rehearsing—these and countless others almost overwhelm us all at times and it is a real tribute to the calibre of the men and women entering the secondary field that such excellent plays are constantly being produced on high school stages. The American Educational Theatre Association is working out a list of plays at three levels and trying in other ways to assist in solving the problems facing us; but after all, each teacher must work out his own salvation with his particular community and equipment. The uniformly improving standards of high school plays attest advanced training of directors and growing interest of administrators in this important phase of the education of today.

The next twenty-five years will show how well our responsibility to our students and our public has been met. Better trained actors should find themselves sooner in the professional field, and brilliant amateurs in the true sense should improve our community theatres and advance the work of the university dramatic departments. Future audiences coming from the 10,000 or more high schools offering specialized dramatic work should lift the taste of the American public by demanding first-class theatrical entertainment and denouncing sentimental or sensational drivel, for their influence at the box office should be felt and recognized by the producers and distributors. At any rate, the lengthening leisure time of the average citizen will certainly be filled more delightfully and constructively if a sincere love of the drama at its best has been fostered during the impressionable adolescent years.

If only a part of these objectives are realized, we high school dramatic teachers may feel rewarded for the grueling hours of rehearsal without any overtime pay, for the worn out nerves and bodies, and for the hectic struggle inherent in all theatrical activity. If we have helped develop more attractive, expressive, and appreciative citizens and a finer American drama, our purposeful teaching has not been in vain and we can retire and live happily ever after on our pensions, spending our well earned leisure time in just seeing plays!

PATTERNS OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION IN SCHOOL AND IN LIFE

WILLIAM E. UTTERBACK
College of the City of New York

FOURTH OF JULY oratory and senatorial debate passed with the horse and buggy. That their educational counterparts, the oratorical contest and the school debate, still form the staple training of students preparing for participation in public discussion is a somewhat anomalous fact, which deserves more attention than it has yet received from directors of college forensic programs. A fair question can be raised, whether as pedagogical devices the oratorical contest and the school debate are not becoming anachronistic.

In any event we are undoubtedly witnessing a revolution in our institutionalized forms of public discussion which bears important implications for the teacher of speech. In an attempt to understand the nature, cause, and extent of that revolution, let us turn to recent political and economic history.

I

During the latter half of the nineteenth century America enjoyed an interlude of public tranquillity. The congeries of conflicting interest groups, whose "push and resistance" underlies the phenomena of government, had reached a comparatively stable equilibrium, and that equilibrium had found expression in the body of legislation and popular thought which we call the American tradition. Universal manhood suffrage, free public schools, cheap land for the farmer, protective tariff for the manufacturer, and a governmental policy of *laissez faire* formed the basis of the great American dream, the dream of a free republic of free citizens in which the dinner pail is always full and the little red school house illuminates a beaten path from log cabin to White House.

During such an era we may expect epideictic oratory to flourish, for it is one of the means by which a group preserves and transmits tradition. The American dream in 1880 was a living faith. The ideals and principles of which it was composed were universally accepted and revered. It remained only to extol them. And they were extolled with fervor and eloquence. It was the golden age of the patriotic oration, the after-dinner speech, of the inspirational address generally. Even the popular lecture was often a lay sermon

celebrating the virtues enshrined in the American tradition or eulogizing popular heroes whose lives exemplified those virtues. Demonstrative oratory in the nineteenth century was an institutionalized form of public discussion.

Of that form of discussion the college oratorical contest was a sufficiently realistic image. How realistic we can best learn by thumbing through a volume of prize orations of the period and comparing them with the public utterances of contemporary political leaders. The college student and the senator discoursed upon the same topics and in much the same spirit and manner, and the boy who acquitted himself well in the oratorical contest presumably could later in life deliver a patriotic address with entire credit both to himself and his country.

A second form of public discussion characteristic of the period and equally rooted in the political situation was the formal debate. When a stable equilibrium between conflicting interest groups has long been established and has generated a political tradition, that tradition becomes the basis of the nation's collective behavior. Problems calling for governmental action or public decision are solved by application of generally accepted principles to concrete situations.

Psychologically the process of decision is one of comparison and judgment. It may involve the weighing of evidence to determine which of several principles applies to the situation; or if two contradictory principles seem equally relevant, it involves weighing the principles themselves to determine which shall have precedence. The form of discussion which most facilitates the process is public debate, in which opposing speakers, standing upon a common ground of accepted principle, present evidence *pro* and *con* for evaluation by the hearer. Debate loads the scales of judgment and public opinion registers the result at the ballot box.

During the nineteenth century debate was the accepted pattern of discussion for the determination of collective action. The great senatorial debates of the period made the names of Webster, Hayne, Calhoun, and Clay familiar to every household, and outside the legislative hall such encounters as those between Lincoln and Douglas were not uncommon. Of this form of discussion the school debate was a sufficiently realistic image. While it was based in part upon the practice of the law court rather than of the legislative assembly, the topics discussed were those of the public forum, and the methods employed were not unlike those of contemporary political speakers.

The nineteenth century patterns of public discussion, then, were

the demonstrative address and the public debate. Both were rooted in the political life of the period. A comparatively stable equilibrium between conflicting interest groups had been established long enough to generate a political tradition which could be made the subject of demonstrative address and could be employed in debate as the basis of collective decision. The oratorical contest and the school debate, in consequence, possessed a reality which made them valuable adjuncts to classroom work in public speaking.

II

Events of the last fifty years have created a new economic and political world. The passing of the western frontier, the rise of modern industrialism, the drift of population to urban centers, the development of mass production, and the concentration of wealth have profoundly disturbed that balance of power among interest groups which was the basis of our political life during the nineteenth century. While the dissolution of old groups and the formation of new ones, especially the rise to power of organized labor and capital, have established a new equilibrium, that equilibrium has not yet found expression in legislation and political tradition. The result is that our political tradition has lost its moral authority and its availability as a basis for collective decision.

In consequence, the nature of the governmental process itself has altered. When labor and capital lock horns over the wage rate, a settlement can be effected only by recognizing the new equilibrium and adjusting group behavior to it. The situation calls for a generalized legislative decision which reflects the present balance of power and which will be available as a new principle for the settlement of future conflicts. Government is no longer a process of applying accepted principles to concrete situations. It has become in large measure a search for new principles.

This new task of government and the political situation out of which it grows have profoundly influenced our institutionalized forms of public expression. Demonstrative oratory is declining. As a form of public discussion, its function is to preserve and transmit living tradition. When the tradition has lost its moral authority, there is no occasion for demonstrative eloquence. Like prayer, epideictic oratory is efficacious only so long as you can believe in it, and the public glorification of "the American way," to which our fathers responded so warmly, now sounds hollow even to unsophisticated ears.

Public debate also is visibly on the decline. In the Senate im-

portant issues are decided in committee, and such bursts of eloquence as may occasionally be heard from the floor are designed rather to impress constituents than to influence colleagues. Most of our legislative assemblies transact serious business in the committee room and lobby and use the chamber as a broadcasting studio. Outside the legislative hall public debate in the Lincoln-Douglas manner has hardly been heard for a generation. Nor is the reason for this decline in debating far to seek. When the problem is not to apply accepted principles to a concrete situation, but to formulate a new principle, formal debate is of little value.

As a method of adjusting conflicts and making collective decisions, in both the political and the non-political spheres, debate has largely been supplanted by propaganda and conference. Conflicting interest groups preparing for the final stage of a controversy deluge their potential followers with propaganda in support of the group's demands, the primary object being not to influence judgment, but to mobilize force for use at the conference table.

A conference is then called to negotiate a settlement. The groups themselves may arrange the meeting, perhaps inviting a neutral party to act as moderator; but if governmental action is required, the conference will be called by a congressional committee, the National Labor Relations Board, or some other appropriate governmental agency. The essential features of the conference are as follows: the problem to be solved grows out of group conflict for the adjustment of which no principle is available in existing legislation or political tradition; the body conferring is small, consisting of the official spokesman of the conflicting groups and a neutral chairman, who will represent the government if public action is in view; each group involved in the controversy represents a certain mass of mobilized power which its leaders are more or less ready to employ if the conference breaks down, their readiness to employ force determining in part their bargaining power at the conference table. The purpose of the meeting is to devise a formula which expresses the balance of power between the groups with sufficient accuracy that all will accept the settlement rather than resort to force.

In all those areas of national life which are disturbed by deep-seated conflicts, collective action is now being determined by the combined use of propaganda and conference rather than by public debate. The federal government has become a mechanism for adjusting conflicts between labor and capital, between taxpayers and the economically underprivileged, between public utility corporations

and the consumers of electrical power. The search for a formula that will compose the conflict is carried on by Congressional committees and other governmental agencies before which spokesmen of the conflicting groups appear to press their demands. Outside the sphere of governmental action we see meeting constantly such conferences as that recently in progress between the American Federation of Labor and the Committee for Industrial Organization. Propaganda and conference have become our chief institutionalized forms of public discussion.

The use of both procedures is further illustrated in international relations. At the close of the World War the League of Nations and the World Court were set up on the assumption that a permanent equilibrium had been established among the European powers, that the equilibrium was adequately reflected in an international tradition of law, precedent, principle, and treaty, and that such minor conflicts as might arise could be adjusted by the application of that tradition to concrete cases by a representative assembly and a court—in other words, by public debate. But subsequent events soon upset the balance of power, and the tradition, not reflecting the new equilibrium, became inapplicable to most of the serious conflicts which arose. Regulation of international relations by public debate broke down almost at once, and the powers have now returned to conference and negotiation as the only alternative to war.

The foregoing account of public discussion does not imply that propaganda and conference are new things under the sun. Their use reflects a periodically recurring situation in the life of national groups. The modes of public discussion through which a nation effects collective decision in any era are determined by the nature of the governmental process at the time, and this in turn depends upon the comparative stability of equilibrium between those conflicting interest groups whose activities underlie political phenomena. If the equilibrium has been stable long enough to generate a political tradition, debate will be the predominant form of public discussion. When a sudden and radical shift in the balance of power renders much of the tradition obsolete, propaganda and conference supplant debate until such time as the new equilibrium has found expression in a new political tradition. Propaganda and conference have been employed before, and debate may again become the predominant form—but probably not in this generation.

While teachers of speech have taken cognizance of this change in patterns of discussion, we have not yet fully appreciated its im-

plications. We need to shift emphasis more decidedly from the oratorical contest and the formal debate to discussion of the conference type; we need to devise more realistic speech projects employing conference discussion; and in arranging a forensic program our choice between debate and conference should be determined by the type of question to be discussed. Only by the use of speech projects which realistically mirror the various contemporary forms of public discussion can the forensic program be made a vital part of the educational process.

SPEECH PURPOSE IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

JESSE J. VILLARREAL
University of Texas

AS LITTLE as ten years ago, instruction in public speaking, at least in the hinterlands of Texas where I was introduced to the subject, was complicated by an apparent confusion as to its aims and methods. Uncertainty regarding methods, it seemed, grew out of an uncertainty regarding purpose. Our teachers themselves did not know just what they were trying to do, and certainly the students did not know.

Our small high school staff would have agreed, I suppose, that public speaking is taught in order that students may learn "to speak in public." It would have been an impertinence to suggest that this professed aim is a good example of begging the question. Beneath the cloak of this generality, each instructor was left free to decide by what methods, and to what end, students might be taught to speak. The result was such divergent processes as, in one class, practicing by the hour to stand painfully in "a comfortable position," and to reproduce artificially "natural" gestures; and, in another, memorizing verses to be recited while faucets labelled "indignation," "fear," "gaiety," and "courage" were turned on and off.

It must have been the absence of any agreement among our public speaking teachers as to what they were trying to do that resulted in a feud, which I have since learned is by no means restricted to our own school, between "the dramatics bunch" and "the debaters." These two groups existed as armed camps within the same land but not of the same faith. Public speaking students were quickly forced to declare an allegiance one way or the other. The debaters looked upon the dramatics group as a thin-blooded crew of snobs, affected

in their manner, perverted in their tastes, and ludicrous in their appearance. The devotees of the drama, on the other hand, found all debaters contentious, uncouth, prematurely cynical, and generally ill-bred.

There was in effect, among the public speakers of our school, a complete caste-system, save for an agreement as to which group were the untouchables. This class consciousness was exemplified in the way students were coached for forensic competition. Debaters remained severely within their own walls, as did aspirants for places in the cast of the one-act play. Declaimers, by common consent, were camp-followers of the dramatics group. Extempore speakers, *les miserables,* shuttled back and forth betwen both groups and found no comfortable resting place in either. Mine was the exceptional case, for I represented my school in both debate and declamation. I was looked upon as a traitor to both sides, and something of a hybrid specimen.

The hodge-podge procedure, the violent antipathies, and the general pointlessness of public speaking training as it existed in my own high school was, I submit, due to the lack, among its teachers, of any commonly-shared, clearly-defined objective. Like the builders of the Tower of Babel, those public speaking instructors did not speak the same language, and with similar consequences. There existed among them the same disharmony as would exist among students of natural science if their teachers should merely thrust into their hands a mass of laboratory apparatus and say, "Do what seems best to you with these!"

It may be that my high school was only an unusually benighted place, but it seems to me that the whole realm of speech arts theory has only recently (if the act can yet be called completed!) emerged from its Dark Ages. Those who disagree may examine C. P. Bronson's *Elocution, or Mental and Vocal Philosophy,* published in 1845. This work, as the testimonials in its preface indicated, received the commendation of both Yale and Princeton College. Perhaps its unique feature is its double-barrelled offer of increased efficiency in speaking and improved health and longer life from the same system of training. The contents of the book indicate the same hodge-podge procedure and the same lack of any definite objective that characterized speech training in my own high school.

That many persons see in speech training nothing more substantial than a given instructor's personal whims and prejudices is not always an injustice to the instructors. Instructors themselves

are often unable to make anything of systems of training with which they are not familiar. Where such confusion exists, there is manifestly a lack of any common measuring stick or point of reference by which procedure may be objectively judged. Speech teachers cannot speak the same language, nor can they be sure that they are speaking entirely different languages, until they clarify their ideas concerning the underlying purpose of public speaking.

I believe most teachers of speech will agree that public speaking is an instrument—an instrument whereby thought may be communicated through the spoken word by one person to a group. One may conceivably strive to master painting or sculpture or adagio dancing for the joy of performance. Not so public speaking. The student who enrolls in a speech class, if he has any conscious purpose, desires to *use* public speaking to further his own ends. If he finds himself, figuratively speaking, in an adagio dancing class, he cannot help being confused and disappointed.

One might ask, for example, what the relationship is between public speaking and beauty. Do we have any examples of good speeches whose contents are beautiful? Undoubtedly we do. But let us ask ourselves a further question: Can we conceive of a speech containing nothing but beauty, and made for no other reason than to give expression to the beauty that is in it? I submit, rather, that a speaker will include beautiful material in his speech only because such material aids in accomplishing the speaker's fundamental purpose—to influence the attitude or the behavior of his audience in a particular way. I follow here John Dolman, Jr., who writes:

> Not power to *ex*press one's self, but power to *im*press one's audience, is the measure of effectiveness in a public speaker today.[1]

Public speaking, then, is a purposive activity, and its aim is always to influence the behavior of the audience. The division of the speech into such artificial classification as the speech to impress, the speech to explain, the speech to convince, and the speech to get action, may be justified if it helps to emphasize particular aspects of speech composition. I think it must be admitted, however, that a speaker's ultimate aim is to influence the conduct of his audience, regardless of how his speech might be classified. In short, I can see no reason why a speaker should want his audience to understand a particular situa-

[1] John Dolman, Jr., *A Handbook of Public Speaking* (Harcourt, Brace, 1934), p. 7.

tion unless such understanding would cause the audience to act in a way which, ignorant, it would not. Many speeches that might be labelled speeches of explanation carry with them obvious implications of proposed actions.[2] The case with speeches to impress and to convince is the same. To say that a speaker sometimes speaks without caring what his audience does as a consequence, or without wanting the audience to do anything, is to say that the speaker might just as well not speak.

To understand the importance of the audience in a speech situation, for me at least, is to seize upon the core of all the varied problems in public speaking. All public speaking problems, from correct breathing to effective persuasion, have this in common: they arise because the speaker is trying to perfect an instrument of social control, a means by which he may influence the conduct of human beings.

Let us take, for example, the problem of speech style. One may set up the requirements for good style in a number of ways. One may simply borrow a set of rules for good writing style. One may take the principles, without question, from accepted authorities. One may even originate his own laws as chance and caprice may dictate. If any of these methods is used, the result is likely to be a maze of data regarding harmonies, imagery, word derivations, and whatnot that tends to become a science within itself, with no external point of reference at all. Such a science may make a thoroughly satisfactory basis for a number of scholarly lectures, and examinations may be devised to determine how much of it the student has managed to absorb, but little has been done to forward the student's central aim: to influence by language the conduct of other persons.

Perhaps it is because the true nature of public speaking is sometimes forgotten that some of our present forms of forensic competition in schools are losing whatever campus following they may once have had. THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH frequently gives voice to the opinion of those who believe that debating, for example, no longer represents and perhaps never did represent a genuine attempt to influence the opinion of an audience on a controversial question, and that some new form of competitive argumentation must be evolved.[3]

[2] For an illustration of this contention, see H. B. Gislason, "An Approach to Persuasion," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, April, 1933.

[3] For an example, see Arleigh B. Williamson, "A Proposed Change in Intercollegiate Speaking," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, April, 1933.

A prime example of where public speaking has been warped out of its true purpose, it seems to me, is the declamation contest. The declaimer is laboriously taught to repeat, in a manner he normally never uses, highflown sentiments on subjects he normally does not think about. Any contestant and audience alike are given to understand that this is public speaking. A student of chess sometimes plays over the games of a master to learn what an expert does in certain difficult situations. This practice I defend in both chess and public speaking. But I am afraid that declamations are rarely studied or delivered with that purpose in mind.

Some years ago, THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH printed an interesting article[4] in which the authors maintained that there are three separate attitudes toward public speaking: the practical, the esthetic, and the scientific. As the article progresses, it becomes clear that the authors have in mind not merely the possible attitudes of a student toward public speaking itself, but three distinct varieties of speech purpose. For, say these writers:

> What are the qualities of a practical speech? The characteristics of this approach are the clearest of the three. In a practical speech, the speaker's purpose is to control and manipulate the behavior of his audience.[5]

We may assume, then, that if this effort to control and manipulate the behavior of the audience is the distinguishing characteristic of the practical approach, then any other approach, whatever other qualities it may have, will not aim in any way to influence the conduct of the audience.

So long as the writers restrict their classifications to possible attitudes of the speaker toward the study of public speaking, it remains practicable. When, however, they attempt to give examples of genuine speeches made for esthetic and scientific purposes, it seems to me that they only make clearer their implied distinction between *practical* and *impractical* speech purposes.[6]

[4] Milton Dickens and R. L. Schank, "Practical, Aesthetic, and Scientific Attitudes Toward Public Speaking," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, November, 1931.

[5] Dickens and Schank, *op. cit.*, p. 505.

[6] "What is the essential nature of the speaker's problem? Standing before your associates in business, society, or school, it is your wish to speak not for the purpose of hearing your voice echo and re-echo, but for the arousal of action! *Always the speaker purposes to arouse his audience: to secure a reaction.*" John A. McGee, *Persuasive Speaking*, pp. 4-5. (The italics are the author's.)

As an instance of a speech made for a purely scientific purpose, for example, the authors of a certain article give the case of "a public speaking instructor doing graduate work in science who was asked to make an oral report before a group of scientists in the field of his study." The authors continue:

> Although an excellent speaker, this man read practically the entire paper. There was no gesture, no emotional appeal, no particular variation of voice, almost no directness. Upon being asked why he had given his report in this colorless fashion, he replied, "Those men would have resented any attempt which even resembled good public speaking in the ordinary sense of the words. They were not interested in hearing anything artistic and they would have been antagonized by the slightest suspicion that I was trying to 'sell' them something. I thought the best policy would be to present my material in as colorless a fashion as possible." This analysis may be restated in terms of attitudes: his audience was not interested in aesthetic material; they would have been antagonized by practical material; their attitude was entirely scientific. One might say that the best public speaking in such a situation consists in breaking all the commonly accepted rules of best public speaking.[7]

It may be assumed, I suppose, that when the authors say the scientists "would have been antagonized by practical material," they use "practical material" in the sense they have already defined it, material used by the speaker "to control and manipulate the behavior of his audience." If this be true, I remain unconvinced that the listeners had any right to be "antagonized" by practical material. I see no reason why a group of scientists should ask to hear an oral report at all unless they thought that the contents of the report would have a bearing upon their behavior, i.e., their future scientific activities.

One may fully grant that a majority of the oral reports delivered in connection with graduate studies are markedly "colorless," and that they do break "all the commonly accepted rules of best public speaking" without also admitting that all such reports, as a matter of necessity, must avoid the influencing of those who listen to them.

The authors' second choice of an illustration of a speech with other than a practical purpose is even more interesting. They tell of a pastor who found that all the members of his congregation were members of the church. He therefore discontinued his sermons of exhortation, and turned to a set devoted to "the purely emotional or the purely educational." When asked about his new set of non-practical sermons, the preacher replied:

> Every member of my congregation is a member of the church. Their contributions to the work of the church are at present entirely adequate for our

[7] Dickens and Schank, *op. cit.*, p. 509.

needs. So far as I know they are entirely convinced that it is better to live uprightly than sinfully. I see no reason why I should appeal to them to join the church, contribute money, or live straight. I believe that my best service to them lies in giving them the beautiful and in trying to educate them to new ideas.[8]

The authors conclude: "This preacher was saying that there is no use in making a practical appeal to get people to do what they have already done. Therefore, he gave mainly aesthetic or scientific sermons."

I would agree that a sermon exhorting persons to join the church would be useless if all the audience were already members. But this question arises: When the preacher changed the character of his sermons, did he cease to desire to "control and manipulate the behavior of his audience"? Or was he merely selecting a more appropriate means of continuing to influence his audience along the lines he desired? And, mind you, to encourage an audience to continue along a path it has already chosen is just as certainly an attempt "to control and manipulate the behavior" as to propose an entirely different course of action.

The third illustration cited by the authors presents what might be called a crucial case. As the authors present it, the illustration is as follows:

Near a small mid-western town is a famous old cemetery. Here annual Memorial Day services, including speaking, are held. One year, a prominent lawyer and politician was invited to deliver the address of the day. After a few preliminary remarks, the speaker began working into a discussion of politics and ended up in what was clearly a political harangue. Many of his listeners were disgusted. He was not asked to speak there again. The next year a lesser known individual was invited to speak. He gave a purely aesthetic speech, arousing beautiful emotions about the occasion and about the heroic dead. The speech did not accomplish anything so far as getting action from his audience was concerned, nor did it contain any important thoughts, but it did arouse pleasant emotions. He was immediately requested to give another speech the following year. We might analyze the above case as follows: the lawyer made a practical speech in a situation where the attitudes of his hearers were not prepared for it; the other speaker presented only aesthetic material and satisfied the mental set of his hearers perfectly.[9]

Certainly the politician here made a serious blunder in delivering the "practical speech" that he did, but one may question whether the more pleasing speaker, as the authors claim, "did not accomplish

[8] Dickens and Schank, *op. cit.*, p. 509.

[9] Dicken and Schank, *op. cit.*, pp. 509–510.

anything so far as getting action from his audience was concerned." For one thing, he certainly seemed to have obtained concrete manifestations of approval, as shown in the immediate invitation for a return engagement. But let us consider the authors' claim that this speaker did nothing save arouse "beautiful emotions about the occasion and about the heroic dead." The phrase calls to mind many eulogistic speeches that I have heard or read, but I do not recall any that did not contain, either emphatically voiced or obviously implied, a plea that the audience approve certain heroic actions, or pledge its faith to certain grand principles, or pattern its life after certain illustrious models. No, I do not think I have ever heard any speech, and certainly no Memorial Day speech, that did not contain the taint of a practical purpose, in the sense that it sought to control and to manipulate the behavior of the audience.

I return to my original thesis. Public speaking is a purposive activity, an instrument that seeks to control human behavior. In whatever form it exists, there exists with it the desire of a speaker to impose his will upon his fellow men. All speech problems take their departure from this fundamental principle, and all speech devices may be tested for their worth by determining whether they help speakers to control audience behavior.

THE MYSTERY OF ORAL INTERPRETATION

J. T. MARSHMAN
Ohio Wesleyan University

TO DISCERN the ideal in great literature, to penetrate its reality, and then to reveal this discerned ideal and this penetrated reality, which may well be the spiritual elements of literature, in terms of material appearances of articulate voice and of action—this is the mystery and vocation of the oral interpreter, and his achievement is oral interpretation, a fine art. The mysterious principle that underlies all art is the incarnation of eternal beauty.

For some years there has been more or less of a moratorium on oral reading, or if you prefer the term, on oral interpretation. In older days we did not dignify the procedure by either of the terms oral reading, or oral interpretation. We called it an elocutionary entertainment, or an evening of recitations or declamations. And then we thought that we were making some progress when we began to

call our offerings readings, and we called the perpetrators no longer elocutionists, but readers. Some of us can distinctly recall that no lecture course or lyceum course in college circles or in communities, large or small, was complete without a reader or two of national reputation on its boards, who were paid anywhere from one hundred and fifty dollars to seven hundred dollars for an evening's entertainment and inspiration. Such names as Adrian Newens, Agnes Doyle, Edward Amherst Ott, Henry Gaines Hawn, Katharine Ridgeway were headliners in those days. In national conventions of the Speech Arts Association at least one full evening was given to elocutionists or readers, who entertained and thrilled us with their grace of movement and poise, and their beautifully modulated and facile voices. In these conventions, more time was allotted to the discussion and demonstration of the art of reading than to all other phases of speech arts put together. That time has passed; perhaps, rightly so. The type of elocution of that day gradually lost its effectiveness, because more and more some of its representatives were violating at least two of Ruskin's principles out of which arise fatal faults in art. Ruskin points out that "all fatal faults in art that might have otherwise been good arise from one or other of these three things: either from a pretense to feel what we do not; the indolence in exercises necessary to obtain the power of expressing truth; or, the presumptuous insistence upon, and indulgence in, our own powers and delights and with no care or wish that they be useful to others, so only they be admired by them." [1]

Stripped of their verbiage, we may call these fatal faults to art by ugly names: hypocrisy, indolence and affectation. But since "you can't fool all the people all the time," elocution and elocutionist, or whatever name you want to call it and him, lost its efficacy and his effectiveness. People's minds and interests are bogged down in time by too much insincerity, mere exhibition, and artificiality. Human minds refuse to be duped forever.

But while we condemn such dispositions in the past to substitute sound for sense and sentimentalism for sanity, we must not forget that these readers did not violate a third principle so necessary to art. Whatever we may say about their love for exhibition or their insincerity, they were not indolent in their practice to perfect an instrument by which they could body forth the truth if they would. If they were nothing else, they were masters of technique, and be

[1] John Ruskin, *Works*, Vol. 32 (1903–12), 53.

it said also that many of them used their technique legitimately and sincerely. For instance, no one could ever accuse Charlotte Cushman of violating any of Ruskin's principles so necessary to art. And what an artist she was! Where can be found her equal as a reader of lines today? True, she belonged to an earlier time than that of which I have been speaking, but others such as Adrian Newens could be named in a later time.

Today we are in danger of falling into the fatal fault of too great indolence for mastery of technique. And this technique should always be a means to an end, and not an end in itself. Charlotte Cushman would and did practice for hours on the modulation of one word for the purpose of bringing out its connotation. And then she would go before an audience at night and thrill them with her meaningful reading of lines. If we are to be effective oral interpreters, we must have more than sincerity and purpose; we must have the mastery of technique, not for its own sake or for show, but again as a means to an end. Technique is as necessary in the art of reading as it is in any art. The story is told of Rachmaninov that when he came to New York City to give a concert, the Steinway piano people were requested to put a piano in the Concert Hall in such time that Rachmaninov could use it in the afternoon before the evening of the concert. The Steinway people were more than ready to do this and they asked some of their closest friends to go to Concert Hall with them and hear Rachmaninov rehearse his program; and then they could go again in the evening and listen with greater appreciation and pleasure. They went, but to their great surprise and disappointment the celebrated Russian did not rehearse his program; he played exercises for three hours,—mastering technique. The reader must have the command of a visible code of sense symbols, of outward signs, if he is to set forth an inward, and many times mysterious, truth. The automatic instrument with its sensitive keyboard of stops and sounds may well be called personality. "You would play upon me; you would seem to know my stops; you would pluck out the heart of my mystery; you would sound me from my lowest note to the top of my compass. . . . Call me what instrument you will, though you can fret me, yet you cannot play upon me." [2] Oral reading uses this personality as a medium. Not that any one of us knows just how to define what personality is, but we do know that it is a mysterious something through which we get conceptions,

[2] Shakespeare, *Hamlet, Act III*, Sc. 1.

and through which we reveal and manifest what we imaginatively, emotionally, and intellectually comprehend and apprehend. Oral reading is truth revealed through personality. Oral reading is an outward revelation of an inward realization of truth in which the revelation, the realization, and the truth make up personality. In this we must always try to remember what is included in the total personality of literature we read. There is the reader—man or woman—his dress, his manner, his mind, his experience, the reach of his soul. Is he aware that sometimes he is dealing with things in literature too great for utterance, and that in the presence of such literature expressive silence is more tuneful than the language of modulation?

Besides the man, there is the occasion, the physical building with all its possibilities or lack of possibilities, or the open air pavilion, or the parlor crowded with industrious women and their sewing baskets. What reader has not sensed personality restrictions as a medium of revelation in the physical environment of the occasion? There are occasions, environmentally speaking, when the same personality as a reader is more compelling, everything else being equal, then under other environments. In the oral interpretation of literature, do the visible things of physical architecture and setting shadow forth the whole atmosphere and meaning of the literature one reads? I recall very distinctly, although it has been many years, an occasion when I read a rather sentimental story, *The Light From Over the Range*, full of pathos and elated religious fervor set in a death scene. I read it at a memorial service for the order of the Elks. The program was in a theatre in the afternoon. The room was darkened, dim lights were burning, and a funereal environment was all about me. Every setting in the room was interpreting my reading. Audience and reader couldn't help being in the mood of the literature itself.

I was not so fortunate on another occasion. This time I was reading, and from memory, one of the most dramatic passages in *The Scarlet Letter* to an audience, crowded into a second-floor auditorium of an opera house in which the first floor was used for the fire department. Suddenly in the midst of this dramatic passage two-thirds of the way through the story, the fire bell rang right over my head sounding the alarm of fire some place in the city. Everyone in that auditorium for the moment smelled the smoke and saw the flames bursting forth in that very building, for they remembered now how many times they had read in the local paper that the city opera house was a veritable fire trap. It seemed to me as I stood there on that platform trying to maintain my own calm and self-control that

the whole audience arose *en masse* and surged to the exits. I called to the audience as loudly as possible above the din of shrieking cries and stumbling, shoving souls, but to little avail. There was no order; it was pandemonium broke loose. At that moment policemen rushed in at every exit and entrance and shouted to the audience for quiet and order. When partial quiet could be restored, the policemen shouted that the alarm was a false one and that there was no danger. It was ten or fifteen minutes before sufficient order could be restored that I could go on for the crowd that had remained. A good many had made their escape. But really, I might as well have stopped then and there, for I do not believe that that crowd ever got back into the atmosphere of *The Scarlet Letter*. The whole external setting had suddenly been wrecked by the clanging of a bell right over my head, a clanging that had connotations, sinister and alarming in meaning, to that group.

In the occasion, there is another phase, difficult of explanation, closely allied to the physical architecture and setting in which there lurks a mystery for the oral interpreter. The question may be legitimately raised whether too much dependence upon stage setting, such as scene and lighting effects, is not destroying the more subtle art of voice effects. In the motion speaking picture of today, only a few years removed from the silent picture, a great deal of emphasis is placed upon scene effects, many times to the detriment and neglect of the vocal effects. The appeal in these pictures is to the eye and not to the ear. As a result, frequently the reading or speaking of the lines is completely out of harmony and of place with the scene setting. However, there is, in our social set-up today, a compensation and counter influence to this dependence on scene effects for the response. It is the radio with its reliance altogether on the voice for the response. The radio is making us much more voice-conscious today than is the modern speaking movie. When the movie uses both the voice and the scene equally well, as it often does, then we get one of the most potent influences for entertainment, inspiration, and motivation in our modern civilization. Even our preachers in our pulpits are catching the contagion of the dramatic bacillus that infects the atmosphere everywhere. Preachers are using lighting, costumes, and stage settings to attract people into our churches and cathedrals. Recently in an important city a certain minister announced that Jeremiah would preach in this pulpit on next Sunday. On the given Sunday the preacher, dressed as Jeremiah of old in the midst of a stage setting and lighting, strode down the aisle of his church and

went into the pulpit and preached to a crowd gathered in the auditorium, as he believed Jeremiah would.

Someone has commented on the difference between the first year of the World's Fair at Chicago and the second year to the effect that it was the difference in the dramatic. The second year almost every display was in some way dramatized. Whether this dramatic tendency is for better or worse will largely depend on whether we allow the appeal to the eye to take the place of the appeal to the ear. My own personal observation is that too many times in college dramatics we emphasize the setting, the lighting, and the acting to the detriment of the reading of the lines. We still need the Ben Greet technique in our dramatic work. I believe that there is greater educational value in learning to read lines well than in learning to light, stage set, and act lines well. I do not mean to say that we can't have both and should not have both, but I do mean to say that there is danger, and perhaps, even a tendency, of neglecting the reading side largely because there is more show and glamour, less subtlety and mystery in the acting side.

Hamlet in his advice to the players did not neglect to admonish the players to read lines as well as to act them: "Speak the speech, I pray you." "Do not saw the air too much." The great actors of the past were readers of lines as well as actors. Edwin Booth and Mrs. Siddons, both as great as the greatest, could read lines, without a body movement that might be termed action, that would melt an audience into tears or stir them into screams of ecstasy and joy. The art of acting and the art of reading aloud are concomitant arts, or at least should be. When we can get these two arts working harmoniously together in the right setting, then we have not only a moving effect, but also we have a compelling response. The stimuli of the whole personality are commanding the fullest and completest response through the eye and the ear. There is a voice personality as well as a body personality. They must work together.

Again, oral reading is a mystery in that it uses words to say what words cannot express. One of the abiding mysteries of this universe is the power of language to awake and charge the mind. It uncovers insights, stimulates feelings, and calls to depths far below the surface of life. Each of us is familiar with this experience. There are times when our minds and hearts are leaden and lifeless. Then we hear read a great poem, a moving short story, or a striking novel, or a gripping one-act play, or perhaps see acted and hear read a Shakespearean play. The intangible voice with its timbre, its inflections, its

dynamics, and its rhythms, a language in themselves, words charged with human tones, and lighted by human eyes; all these quicken the dead memory in us, and thought after thought, accompanied by its companionable emotion, darts through the brain and from the brain like sparks from an emery wheel. Almost before we are aware of the transformation the heart and soul are alive. The majesty of words, the very rhythm of phrases spoken aloud from the great masterpieces of literature creates in the speaker, as well as in those spoken to, an authority which modern, everyday, bromidic speech does not possess. Nor can the written words of the great masterpieces alone possess it in the same measure. "Speech gives to the written word a head and legs of its own, to go and find its place, carrying another word, if necessary, on its back." But how? That is a miracle.

Once again, oral reading is a mystery because it is directed to that mysterious functioning of the human mind that we call imagination. No one knows just what the imagination is, but we do know that it is real and that it functions more in some and less in others. We know that it is "the energy of the mind or of the soul, for it welds all psychical activities. It is the agent of our world winnings and the procreator of our growing life. It is distinguished from perception by its relative freedom from the dictation of sense; it is distinguished from memory by its power to acquire,—memory only retains; it is distinguished from emotion in being a force rather than a motive; from the understanding in being an assimilator rather than the mere weigher of what is set before it; from the will because the will is but the wielder of the reins,—the will is the charioteer, the imagination is the Pharaoh in command. It is distinguished from all these, yet it includes them all, for it is the full functioning of the whole mind and in the total activity drives all mental faculties to its one supreme end—the widening of the world wherein we dwell. Through beauty the world grows, and it is the business of the imagination to create the beautiful. The imagination synthesizes, humanizes, personalizes, illumines reality with the soul's most intimate moods, and so exalts with spiritual understandings." [3] It is to such a synthesizing faculty or process that the oral reader not only must appeal, but the faculty that he must have himself. The oral reader must suggest; he cannot exhaust. The imagination responds readily

[3] Hartley Burr Alexander, *Poetry and the Individual* (1906), 108–109.

to the suggestion of the subtle stimuli of sound. The intonations of the human voice might sometimes well be called the wings of truth in their flight to the imagination. It is the human voice that plants the seeds of truth and beauty which have grown, ripened, and have been gathered from the garden of literature into the soil of the imagination, where they germinate and are nurtured until the plants spring full blown and are ready to begin other cycles. Surely, in mysterious ways these wonders of the imagination are performed. Let us lift the moratorium as much as possible from this mystery of oral interpretation, and through a new philosophy and a new practice of this old art, this unusual art, this difficult art, resurrect the dead truth now resting peacefully in the tomes of literature. If, as Milton says, "a great book is the precious life blood of the author," let us as oral interpreters become the physicians who will transfuse this precious life blood into the anemic, emaciated culture of our generation.

"Then read from the treasured volume
The poem of thy choice,
And lend to the rhyme of the poet
The beauty of thy voice

And the night shall be filled with music,
And the cares, that infest the day,
Shall fold their tents, like Arabs,
And as silently steal away."

GUIDANCE AND SPEECH IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

DONALD NYLEN
Seattle Public Schools

GUIDANCE and the development of a modern point of view in speech work have been of contemporaneous growth. It is, therefore, no mere coincidence that their purposes and methods show similarity. They stem from like movements in American life and a psychological approach to the problems of growth and education. Both fields endeavor to help the individual to an expression of himself in terms of his abilities, his interests, and his needs. They contemplate a recognition of physical and personal patterns as well as of the environment in which the individual lives. Each field is most

effective when integrated with the entire school program.

The growth of a mature personality is dependent upon the proper coördination of experience with the native equipment of the individual. Guidance and speech work, therefore, proceed from a positive point of view, attempting to stimulate the development of the individual to desired growth and to provide remedial measures only when the original pattern of development has not been satisfactory. When, however, limitations in the individual or environmental deficiencies have prevented a satisfactory unfolding of the personality, remedial measures are in order.

In both speech work and guidance, the individual is seen as a whole personality. Due consideration is given to the relationship of his physical, emotional, and intellectual aspects. Specific behavior traits are objective evidences of the pattern in the personality complex. A stuttering child may be expressing a feeling of inferiority or a sense of insecurity which he can not formulate into words. The delinquent girl may be possessed of emotional problems which play such a dominant rôle in her make-up that she is unable to give consideration to anything else. The restless or mischievous boy may be physically unhealthy, too tired to respond satisfactorily or too limited in capacity to give attention to the matter at hand. In such instances the behavior traits which we see must be treated as symptomatic of a more fundamental problem.

To discover fundamental problems requires consideration of all aspects of the child's life. Adequate treatment can be successful only in the light of the complete personality pattern. The attack upon the child's problems may be approached through the universality of human needs and desires. What are the common needs of man? One may see them in the wish for a physical and emotional security. Physical security takes the form of health and the factors which contribute to it—a place to sleep and eat, clothing, and freedom from danger. Emotional security is closely related to a place in group life, some degree of certainty as to the future, and a stable point of view toward the purposes of life, usually expressed in religious philosophy of some sort. Furthermore, the individual must have some opportunity for the expression of himself, some recognition from the group, some experience of success. Finally, the individual needs affection, a personal relationship secured either in the family group or with individuals outside of that group.

In the limited or unsatisfactory expression of these universal needs, one finds the key to personality difficulties which express

themselves in overt, unsocial behavior traits. One notes, further, that the individual achieves self-realization only through a place in the group. A child's expanding personality grows through relationships in the home, in the school, and in the community. Thus the teacher plays a significant rôle in causing the personality to unfold. It is for this reason that she must be trained to observe all aspects of human behavior. There are times when the child is not conscious of his own problems and is not able to analyze his relationships to himself or to the group. It may be the teacher's function in this case to help him to understand himself. As a result of the study of the child she may be able to direct his thinking or to correct situations in the environmental pattern so that undesirable behavior traits will disappear. If, however, her own ability or training in this direction is limited, the teacher should be in a position to call upon one or more specialized services in the school system to provide the necessary analysis and to develop a remedial program.

Speech is an important expression of the self. As such it is closely related to physical and emotional conditions. The development of expression, therefore, the emotional and intellectual attitudes, the making of gestures, the formulation of words, are important keys to the growth of personality. A failure to express one's self satisfactorily, i.e., the inability to formulate sentences, liability to speech difficulties, or emotional outbursts, may be an indication of a basic disruption in the individual's life pattern. Whether the situation be in the initial stage of development or in any aggravated form, an analysis involving physical examination, study of environmental conditions, interpretation of the emotional pattern, and an evaluation of all the information obtainable is desirable. On the basis of such an analysis one is in a position to suggest desirable development or correctional teaching.

How closely related are the factors of human development and how the services of guidance and speech work may effectively be coördinated were well illustrated in the life of Harry Smith. Harry came to the attention of the high school classroom teacher because of his stuttering. He was referred to the speech teacher, who undertook to study his problems. There was an excellent grade school academic record, and the start in high school had been well made. The lad seemed amenable, willing to do his work, coöperative in his attitude, and responsive to his general situation, though considerably embarrassed by his stuttering. Teachers' reports indicated that he read widely and that he was thoroughly likable. As the speech teacher talked with the boy, she discovered that he complained of eyestrain,

shooting pains in the head, and constipation; that his teeth were in need of dentist's care, and that he had difficulty in getting to sleep. She found further that he had been unable to make friends and that he had never confessed to wanting friends. He said that his speech difficulty had developed in early adolescence. Because of the apparent seriousness of Harry's difficulty he was referred to the Child Guidance Clinic for an examination in order to determine his general level of ability and to study his personality.

A Binet examination revealed that the boy rated as a genius or near-genius. An adjustment inventory indicated his home adjustment to be good, his health and emotional adjustment average, and his social adjustment highly unsatisfactory. An interview with the parents of the boy revealed that he was an only child. His father was a musician whose hearing had been impaired, and who refused to accept the fact of his disability. The mother was found to be extremely emotional. She mourned over her own mother's unhappy life, made frequent visits to her mother's home, and on each occasion was upset to the point of tears.

In the life of Harry's mother there was a series of unfortunate circumstances. An elder brother had left home when he was quite young and had finally been killed in a tragic manner. A younger brother had become a narcotic addict with a history of experiences in the penitentiary and state hospital for the insane. Because of these experiences, Harry's mother had become exceedingly nervous and poorly adjusted emotionally. Before Harry's birth she had suffered excessively. A doctor had advised her that she should never have had a child.

Harry's early life had not been normal. He suffered from bronchial pneumonia during the first year of school. Flu, measles, whooping cough, chicken pox, and infected tonsils had bothered him. He complained of sleeplessness and constipation. When he was little, he had played with girls. Boys had called him a sissy. As he grew older, he preferred the company of little children and grown-ups. His chief pal when he came to the attention of the speech teacher was an eight-year-old boy. In school he had worried constantly about his grades. His worries had almost always turned out to be groundless. He had done well except for reading. The reading teacher, who had not understood his special problem, gave him a poor grade. This had disturbed him greatly.

Recognizing his mother's problem, the boy had tried to keep from worrying her. Her tendencies toward emotional unbalance had

influenced him seriously. Frequently he had kept things from her. Often he had been forced to console her. The result was a strain upon his own emotional life.

From all indications Harry's initial speech development was normal. However, he soon developed a tendency to talk too fast. He became conscious of his rapid speech in the fourth grade and began to stutter when he was eleven or twelve years of age. As the stuttering developed, he became worried about his speech. His parents tried to get him to speak more slowly. The only result was that the speech problem became more aggravated. There seemed, however, to be no history of stuttering in the family.

The boy's speech problems revealed interesting idiosyncrasies. It was observed that he spoke best when not under strain. No real stuttering had been observed in several of the classes. It was noticed that in speaking with his father and mother he stuttered very badly. Frequently in speaking with other adults he stuttered less perceptibly than when he conversed with children of his own age, or not at all.

The study of Harry's difficulties led to a conclusion that he was an unusually bright boy who lived to a certain extent in an unreal world of books and imagination. Consequently, he had few friends and many emotional problems. All of these difficulties seemed to culminate in stuttering. It was at once apparent that the correction of Harry's stuttering called for the coöperation of the home and the coördination of all the facilities which the school was able to provide.

The mother was helped in several interviews. She responded favorably. She was shown that her attitude toward her brothers was not wholesome, that they were sick individuals rather than criminals. It was pointed out that her emotional attitude had damaging effects upon her child as well as upon herself. She was provided with mental hygiene books and encouraged to cope with her problem.

The boy was led through a series of interviews to analyze his own situation and to realize that his stuttering was a symptom of an insecurity and an emotional instability. His health problem was in part attacked by a thorough physical examination and by membership in a special gymnasium class which gave him the type of exercise which he needed.

Harry responded well to the suggestion that he try to cultivate friends of his own age. From his allowance, which he usually spent for books and magazines, he purchased several games and invited some of his fellow students to go home after school and play them. In a further effort to help him make friends easily, he was encour-

aged to participate in activities in the school. The Chess Club and the stage crew were both recommended. An opportunity was found for him to participate in some discussions with university students where he would be able to talk with people on his own intellectual level. Special provision was made in the school program that Harry might take an extra subject each semester during high school so that his abilities would be better challenged. It was also arranged that he could take junior and senior subjects even though he was only a second-half freshman.

Harry's problem was thus attacked from every angle. His mother was helped to greater emotional stability. The boy was given a more objective attitude toward himself and his family situation. His physical health was strengthened through diet and corrective exercises. His school program was rearranged to suit the needs of his unusual abilities. His unsocial attitudes were overcome through the development of friends and participation in school activities. Though his stuttering has not yet completely disappeared, there is noticeable improvement. There are high hopes, too, that he will realize some of the immense potentialities in his make-up. Satisfactory analysis and treatment of a case such as this indicated can only be achieved through the successful coördination of the school program, the speech program, and the integration of all available facilities to serve the needs of the child.

There are universal aspects to all effective guidance programs. Basically, there is need for individual attention to the needs of each child. There is also need for realistic understanding of the child's world and a developmental or remedial program based upon his present interests, attitudes, and conditions. Such attention, however, involves a projective aspect as well and seeks to help the child with self-analysis in planning for the years ahead. Attention is, furthermore, given to an analysis of society, of the world about the child, and the adult world into which he will grow. There is provision for developmental and adjustive experiences. In short, it is important that the school program be made with an eye to the needs of the individual child and the needs of society, and a thorough understanding of this purpose provides effective guidance and speech work as needed. Such characteristics of a guidance program are found whether it be in a home room organization, a plan of student counselors, or the master teacher principle. The basic help is given by the teacher who contacts the child from day to day. At the same time there are special facilities which the teacher may call upon, the

counselor, the speech teacher, the medical assistant, the home visitor, the Child Guidance Clinic, and others.

It is, therefore, apparent that the guidance approach and speech are constantly interrelated and supplement each other as a part of a unified school program. The teacher is stimulated to an intensive interest in the individual. The counselors, advisers, speech teachers, and others provide further analysis and developmental and remedial measures when students are discovered to have unusual problems. There are other aspects of a guidance program as well, such as those of helping the student to plan his future vocational activities, helping him locate a place in the world of work, providing social experiences through school activities, plays, etc. Of all these opportunities the speech teacher must be aware. She must be psychologically trained, prepared to handle problems of personality disorders which may be indicated through difficulties in expression. She is a part of an effective school program which at its best is a vibrant thing wherein the regular and specialized services are constantly poised to be sensitive to the needs of students and flexible enough to satisfy those needs in the terms of the school and society.

SPEECH CORRECTION FACILITIES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OF INDIANA

E. K. JEROME and M. D. STEER
Purdue University

IN ORDER to determine what facilities were available for treatment of speech defectives in colleges and universities in Indiana, and what opportunities were being offered to those who wished training to treat speech defectives, a survey using the questionnaire method was made during the academic year 1936–37. Blanks were sent to twenty-seven institutions throughout the state. Generally these were sent to the person in charge of the speech work, but where this person was not known, the blanks were sent to administration officials who in turn passed them to the persons on their faculties best qualified to give the most adequate answers. The questionnaires were returned to the Speech Clinic at Purdue University. Twenty returns, or 78 percent, were received from the twenty-seven blanks sent out. The following is a copy of the questionnaire.

School _____ Date _____

1. Do you prohibit the registration of students with serious speech defects?
2. Do you have a faculty committee on speech defects?
3. Do you conduct speech surveys of all students at the institution?
4. Do you conduct speech surveys of all newly entering students?
5. Do you favor the treatment of speech defective students at the college level?
6. Should students with speech defects be permitted to enter a college before the defect is eliminated?
7. Do you have a speech clinic at your institution?
8. Do you have a trained speech pathologist on your faculty?
9. Are the speech defective students required to attend the clinic?
10. What percent of students at your institution are designated as speech defective?
11. Are these students required to eliminate the defect?
12. Are students required to pay a special fee for speech correction service? How much?
13. Is the clinic open to speech defectives who are not enrolled at the University?
14. If so, do you require a special fee for this service? How much?
15. Do you offer special courses toward correcting speech defects?
16. Do you offer courses designated for teachers or therapists of speech defectives?
17. Do you offer graduate courses in speech pathology?
18. In which department are these courses offered?
19. Do you conduct research in speech pathology?
20. Do you have laboratory facilities for speech correction?
21. Are you convinced that your program of correctional services is successfully dealing with the speech defect problem in your school?
22. Briefly describe your speech correction program.

In summarizing the data, great leeway was allowed in giving the benefit of any doubt on the side of assuming more being offered than a strict classification of answers might allow. For instance, question 16 asks if any courses designated for teachers or therapists are being offered; an answer which stated that a section in the Teaching of Speech course was devoted to teaching speech correction techniques was counted as work for the training of teachers in speech correction. Other generous classifications were followed.

The accompanying table gives the numbers and percentages of the types of answers. Most of the questions could be answered with a simple "yes" or "no," although on certain questions short explanations were given. These explanations have been listed in a separate column of the table.

TABLE I. CLASSIFICATION OF ANSWERS

Question No.	No. Answering Yes	Percent Answering Yes	No. Answering No	Percent Answering No	No. and Percent Unanswered		Explanation
1.	3	15%	16	80%	1	5%	
2.	4	20%	16	80%	0		
3.	7	35%	13	65%	0		
4.	7	35%	13	65%	0		
5.	17	85%	1	5%	1	5%	1, No policy
6.	13	65%	0	0%	3	15%	4, 20% No stand
7.	4	20%	16	80%	0		
8.	6	30%	14	70%	0		
9.	3	15%	12	60%	5	25%	
10.	8	40% gave the percent			8	40%	4, 20% gave an approximation
11.	4	20%	10	50%	4	20%	2, 10% applied pressures
12.	3	15%	9	45%	8	40%	1, 50c 2, $5
13.	1	5%	5	25%	14	70%	
14.	0		1	5%	19	95%	
15.	5	25%	13	65%	1	5%	1, indirect
16.	4	20%	15	75%			1, indirect
17.	0		20	100%			
18.					16	80%	1 Eng., 3 Speech
19.	1	5%	18	90%	1	5%	
20.	4	20%	14	70%	2	10%	
21.	5	25%	9	45%	6	30%	

22. Varied from what teacher volitionally does in classroom, to a planned program under the supervision of a Director of the Speech Clinic.

Questions three, five, seven, eight, thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, nineteen, and twenty can be regarded as the key questions. These give a picture of the colleges' and universities' attitude toward the problem, actual programs for service, training of people as speech correctionists, and research projects. While 85 percent favor treatment of speech defects at the university level, 80 percent do not have a speech clinic, and 70 percent do not have a speech pathologist (including anyone who has had one course in speech correction) on their faculties. Twenty percent of the institutions feel that they have laboratory facilities for speech correction work, and 5 percent, or one institution, is doing research.

The results of the questionnaire show that the colleges and universities of the state of Indiana are interested in the problem of speech defects and that the time is ripe for stimulation of definite programs instead of explanation and definition of the problem.

Since this survey was conducted, there has been some growth in the state toward an adequate program for dealing with speech defects and training people to retrain the speech defective. One university has embarked on a program to take care of the problem of their

campus and several secondary schools have added speech correction to the facilities of their system.

It is plainly evident from the answers to question 20 that the state-wide problem in institutions of higher learning is much greater than present facilities can accommodate, and furthermore, the universities offering adequate teacher training cannot supply the personnel necessary to handle the speech correction problem in the state.

ARE AFFRICATES ELEMENTAL PHONEMES?

CHARLES H. VOELKER
Dartmouth College

SOME texts indicate the initial and final paired consonants (tʃ) and (dʒ) in the words "church" and "judge" as single consonants, thus: (tʃ) and (dʒ). In spite of the fact that scientists have analyzed these sounds into their elements, and classified them as diphthongs, there are still those who argue in favor of designating these sounds as single elemental phonetic sounds. They class these so-called affricate sounds as isolated primary phonemes.

This notion is most surprising from the pedagogical and logopaedic point of view, in which it is a practical necessity to separate affricates into their elements.

This paper undertakes to outline the difficulties encountered in recognizing the affricates in actual speech, and to make some conclusions in regard to their nature.

In transcribing radio speech from phonographic recordings, it has been found that words may well be forgotten, because actual speech, even of this formal style, mutilates words, changing, adding, and omitting their dictionary elements regularly. Instead, by transcribing directly into breath groups, indication can be made of intervening periods of respiration, or perhaps, of holds, which acoustically correspond to word division as ordinarily understood.

Immediately it becomes quite obvious that the words of spoken language are quite different from those indicated by our dictionaries. Sometimes the acoustic word would be made up of six or more orthographic words. Often this word ended in the middle of an orthographic word, so that the latter was even more obliterated. For example, an acoustic word might consist of the final phonetic elements of one word and the initial elements of the next.

Our whole conception of the regularity of initial, medial, and final occurrences of consonants thus becomes upset. Regularly, initial consonants become final in actual speech, regardless of whether the preceding sound is vowel or consonant. Final consonants often become initial, regardless of whether the following sounds were vowels. Initial and final consonants quite often become medial, and medials on occasion in turn become final or initial.

In studying the occurrences of the several phonetic sounds, we become involved in the problem of separating the affricates into their elements. In many extreme cases this is simple, especially since many claim that the sounds (tʃ) and (dʒ) are the only affricates of English. However, in actual speech usage, a great number of additional combinations are found which may also be classified as affricates.

In spoken language, the affricates are not separate sounds, or even identical to each other. In actual occurrences in connected utterance, the affricates are not similar. They behave like all other diphthongs. They are changed according to the surrounding sounds. For example, if the initial sound in a word ending in (t) is (ʃ), then (ʃ), will, in some cases, be assimilated into the (t). If the following sound is (s), the affricate may become the German z, (ts). If the sound preceding a (tʃ) is (t), it may be assimilated into the affricate. Or, if the sound following a (tʃ) is some other fricative or even a plosive, the (ʃ) portion may drop out. In other words, the (t) and (ʃ) of the combination (tʃ), are treated as individual sound entities in spoken language. An example of this that all phoneticians are familiar with is the interchangeability of (tʃ) and (tj) in the southern American pronunciation of "tune." It is merely an oscillating diphthong.

The most conclusive evidence that the (t) and (ʃ) sounds in (tʃ) are identical with any other (t) and (ʃ), and that the affricate (tʃ) is not one separate sound, is that often the so-called (tʃ) sound is actually spoken as two separate sounds, the (t) becoming final in the acoustic word, and the (ʃ) becoming the initial sound of the next acoustic word. To represent the (tʃ) always as simply (tʃ), or even a part of the time as a sound element, would be a misrepresentation of the facts.

Perhaps the (t) in (tʃ) may not be exploded quite as vigorously as some other (t)'s, but it is still a member of the (t) phoneme. We do not, for example, think of the implosive (t), sometimes heard in southern American pronunciation, which is entirely unexploded, as a separate (t), and not a member of the (t) phoneme. The (t) in

(tʃ) is just between the ordinary explosive (t) and the non-explosive or implosive southern American (t), being released gradually. Therefore it would be illogical to call it a separate sound, i.e., to classify it as not a (t).

It is interesting to observe that the final (ts) and (dz), etc., (which are not usually designated as affricates in English, because they occur only in final position), in many cases become initial, maintaining their characteristic quality; in this situation, they fall within the classification of affricates. However, it might be added that, if the term affricates, as in the parlance of the above mentioned texts, designates only initial consonants, then it is entirely artificial, and has no real acoustic significance. And if the position is of no consequence, then in actual speech, any plosive followed directly by a fricative is an affricate. Such close combinations regularly occur with all plosives in spoken English, and usage would not treat any such combination as a separate sound, but on the contrary, as a diphthong. The logic of excluding the (ts) from the affricate classification in English because it occurs only in final position (which is acoustically untrue) is further disproved by the fact that these texts classify (tʃ) as an affricate in final position or in fact in any position.

These texts hold that the affricates are separate phonemes because the component elements are not readily heard. The fact that (tʃ) is not *easily* perceived as two sounds is no proof that it is a single sound. Many of our general English schoolbooks have apparently not yet perceived that the *C* pronunciation in the word "crowd" needs no different symbol than that of the letter *K* in "kraut." Another illustration of erroneous phonetic perception is that of a university professor of voice with a highly trained ear for tones and vocal quality, who insists that his students sing "pure," what he calls the "vowel sound" in "pipe." He will not permit them to finish arpeggios with the vowel which can be found in "peep," or, perhaps, "pip." That is to say, even diphthongs as common as (ɑi), or (aɪ), etc., to the phonetician, are not generally perceived. And so it would seem that the argument of "difficulty of perception" has little weight.

Conclusions. Judging from the difficulties encountered in considering affricates as single phonetic elements in this study, and judging from their behavior as normal diphthongs, it may be concluded that the affricate should not be called a sound entity, but must be treated as a combination of its phonetic elements. It must also be concluded that there are not only many close plosive-fricative combinations in English, but also that usage treats the (tʃ) and (dʒ) diph-

thongs as a combination of their phonetic elements, (t) and (ʃ), and (d) and (ʒ), respectively. And it might in addition therefore be concluded that the word "affricate" is superfluous, and its use conducive to erroneous conceptions.

MOTIVATION AS A FACTOR IN LINCOLN'S RHETORIC

EARL W. WILEY
Ohio State University

IT MIGHT be interesting to ask for the identification of the following passage.

> Mr. Lamborn . . . predicts that every State in the Union will vote for Mr. Van Buren at the next presidential election. Address that argument to cowards and to knaves; with the free and the brave it will effect nothing . . . I know the great volcano at Washington, aroused and directed by the evil spirit that reigns there, is belching forth the lava of political corruption in a current broad and deep, which is sweeping with frightful velocity over the whole length and breadth of the land, bidding fair to leave unscathed no green spot of living thing; while on its bosom are riding, like demons on the waves of hell, the imps of that evil spirit, and fiendishly taunting all those who dare resist its destroying course with the hopelessness of their effort; and, knowing this, I cannot deny that all may be swept away. Broken by it I, too, may be; bow to it I never will . . . If ever I feel the soul within me elevate and expand to those dimensions not wholly unworthy of its almighty Architect, it is when I contemplate the cause of my country, deserted by all the world beside, and I standing up boldly and alone, and hurling defiance at her victorious oppressors. Here, without contemplating consequences, before high heaven and in face of the world, I swear eternal fidelity to the just cause, as I deem it, of the land of my life, my liberty, and my love . . .[1]

The author of the Gettysburg Address spoke those words in 1839. My own reaction to this quotation takes the form of a question, namely, *How account for the fact that the man who wrote the Inaugural Addresses in 1861 and in 1865, respectively, also wrote this passage?* We approach our problem on the assumption that the study of any orator is premised on the fact of his being fundamentally a man, plagued and moved by the longings which govern human nature. We submit the query, accordingly, What drive dominated Lincoln in his climb from obscurity to a place among the immortals?

[1] John G. Nicolay and John Hay, *Abraham Lincoln, Complete Works,* (New York, 1920), Vol. I, p. 36.

With the answer to this question before us, we pose a second query, namely, What influence did that motive tend to have on Lincoln's style of oratory?

Clue to our original query is embedded in the words addressed by Lincoln to the voters of Sangamon county, Illinois, under date of March 9, 1832. He declared on that occasion, "Every man is said to have his peculiar ambition. Whether it be true or not, I can say, for one, that I have no other so great as that of being esteemed by my fellow-men, by rendering myself worthy of their esteem."[2] Such was the declaration of intent posed by a rebel who desired some change in the *status quo* of his own estate. Lincoln, in short, aged twenty-three at the time, tall, lean, bronzed by the winds and sun and storms of the prairies, turned his eyes away from the lowliness of his position. He would become a man of distinction. He would make the name of Abraham Lincoln heard in important circles. Whence came this attitude in the man, and how definitely was it interlocked with his speech behavior?

Casting about for a solution of our inquiry, let us look back to a primitive community in Indiana, called Pigeon Creek. There, between the years of 1816-1830 Abraham Lincoln lived; and there under the stress of circumstances he captured the purpose to stand high among his fellows. Pigeon Creek was an isolated community, inhabited by men with shaggy beards and bronze necks and sinewy hands. It was a friendly habitation, where squatters in homespun sought the companionship of one another in an effort to escape the monotony of the long days and silent nights of their existence. It was under conditions like these that the adolescent Lincoln turned his ear to the rapport of sessions of wit and mysticism and adventure and good fellowship which stirred within the community. There he nourished the herd instinct dormant in him, and there he came to relish the fanfare of the crowd. His association with men became important to him. He became gregarious in his habits. The dynamics sprung from that discipline created the foundation of his training for a career in a democratic form of society. For Lincoln, being normal in his responses to the world, sought some break in the routine of life which confined him in Pigeon Creek. He would find that relief from his loneliness in the companionship of his fellows. The songs sung, the stories related, the laughter and chatter which rang out in field and cabin sounded sweet to ears seeking some escape from the monotony of a sequestered society.

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 4.

We may conclude from these antecedent facts that the simplicity of life at Pigeon Creek impelled Lincoln to go to his fellows for change and excitement. It logically followed that he should become vocal. For Lincoln discovered that by means of speech he could nourish the show-off instinct of his nature. I do not wish to convey the thought that Lincoln was possessed of an inordinate instinct for attention. That he was aggressive in his desire to win the acclaim of men is shown by the reports of almost any situation in which he played a part. He developed a keen sense of acquiring publicity for his own purpose. The beginning of this development occurred at Pigeon Creek. Nor was this expression of behavior altogether vocal in its import. He learned to run swiftly. He was a good swimmer. He could swing an axe in wide and rhythmic motions. He managed a riverboat with skill and daring. He took pride in the fact that he was taller than most other men. His associates had cause to look his way. Especially was this true when the boys convened at the general store, or at a house-raising, or at a shooting match. Then Lincoln was primed to satisfy his yearning for the limelight. He would distort his face into ludicrous shapes and expressions in order to make men laugh and to evoke from them a word of praise. He learned to shift his tones into a falsetto shrillness which caused many a smile. He acquired some aptness in ventriloquism. He would satirize the text of some sermon he had heard pronounced in the neighborhood, or mimic the efforts of some office-seeker who had harangued the voters locally. It is not inaccurate to conclude that much of Lincoln's early speech behavior was motivated by a strain of exhibitionism lodged in him.

Early in the spring of 1830, the Lincolns pulled up stakes and moved to central Illinois. Abraham thenceforth faced life on his own efforts. His purse was empty. He lacked touch with the social graces. He understood nothing of Greek or Latin. But he liked the companionship of men. And he could tell a story with zest and finesse. Herein lay his assets. In camp, in field, in cabins scattered over the plains, he played the part of a plowman touched with the strain of Harlequin.

Lincoln's associates came to enjoy his companionship. He added something to the sum of their existence. He helped to break down the monotony of the blue silences of their routine. But ours is a world of cause and effect: and round the man who wins the good will of others presently gather camp followers. It was so in the case of Lincoln. Perhaps the first of Lincoln's clients in Illinois was

one Denton Offutt. A small promoter, Offutt engaged Lincoln for service as a riverman on a trip to New Orleans. The apprentice captured the respect of the boss. Lincoln wrote significantly in an *Autobiography,* 1859, that Offutt "conceived a liking" for him and "contracted with him to act as clerk for him, on his return from New Orleans, in charge of a store and mill at New Salem, twenty miles northwest of Springfield then in Sangamon, now in Menard County."[3] That circumstance seemed to epitomize Lincoln's association with men. To know him was to admire him. At New Salem he attracted a following within the short period of eight months after his arrival at this hamlet. The hard-riding, hard-drinking, hard-hitting Clary Grove boys looked upon him as an exceptional man. Not only could Lincoln wrestle skillfully, and control a boat in the shallows of the river, but he could argue politics, and declaim. His honesty and temperate habits attracted others to him. The fact of this popularity and fellowship was indicated by the help which the community extended to him. For example, Mentor Graham, the village schoolmaster, tutored him in the rules of Kirkham's *English Grammar.* John Calhoun encouraged him to study the elements of surveying, and presently appointed him Deputy Surveyor of Sangamon County. Bowling Green, local Justice of the Peace, taught him the procedure of the Squire's court. Jack Kelso found in him a kindred spirit in the enjoyment of Burn's and Shakespeare's poetry. He was elected captain of his company in the Black Hawk War without benefit of military knowledge. In short, Lincoln became the fair-haired child on New Salem Hill. He modestly recognized this fact, and in his *Autobiography,* 1859, mentioned that he there made "acquaintances and friends" rapidly.

Possessed of a following, it was logical that Lincoln should utilize it for his own service. Accordingly, he ventured to become a candidate for the General Assembly. In this way the Clary Grove boys and his friends generally could electioneer for him. "I have been solicited by my friends," Lincoln is reported to have remarked in his first campaign, 1832, "to become a candidate for the Legislature."[4] He lost the election that year. But the fact of his popularity and clientele was obvious: for of the 208 ballots cast in his home precinct at New Salem, he received 205.[5] Lincoln's yearning for the

[3] John G. Nicolay and John Hay, *op. cit.,* Vol. I, p. 641.
[4] Ward H. Lamon, *Life of Abraham Lincoln,* (Boston, 1872), p. 125–126.
[5] Albert J. Beveridge, *Abraham Lincoln,* (Boston 1928), Vol. I, p. 126.

crowd, his desire to assume some station of importance among his colleagues, had been converted by 1832 into a yearning to become a politician. "Lincoln's restless ambition found its gratification only in the field of politics," wrote Herndon. "He used the law merely as a stepping-stone to what he considered a more attractive condition in the political world."[6] Chief among the forces which wrought the change in Lincoln's fortune was his skill in speech. He was the product of his environment and aptitudes.

A lawyer-politician, full of hope for further conquests, Lincoln moved from New Salem to Springfield in 1837. To further his own purpose, he there continued to engage in a ceaseless campaign to publicize himself. He attended meetings of all descriptions. He was present at church, at tavern, in the city clerk's office, at the curb in front of some prominent store in town. The concomitant of this behavior was speech. His gift in argument, in declamation, in story-telling served to draw people to him. But, and this is the significant feature of the matter, by chatting with men in order to advance his own fortunes, he sometimes lacked theme and substance for his best effort. Sometimes he lacked little more than the will to speak. One instance of this sort occurred on January 27, 1838. On that day he addressed the Springfield Lyceum. The opportunity for his effusion was the wave of lawlessness which recently had swept the country. Notable among the mob depredations committed was the Lovejoy incident at Alton, Illinois. Lincoln urged obedience to law and order. That was wholly innocuous, but observe the style in which he expressed himself:

> Let reverence for the laws be breathed by every American mother to the lisping babe that prattles on her breast; let it be taught in schools, in seminaries, and in colleges; let it be written in primers, spelling-books, and in almanacs; let it be preached from the pulpit, proclaimed in legislative halls, and enforced in courts of justice. And, in short, let it become the political religion of the nation; and let the old and the young, the rich and the poor, the grave and the gay of all sexes and tongues and colors and conditions, sacrifice unceasingly upon its altars.[7]

The fine straining for balance and antithesis apparent in this passage gives way to a striving for metaphor in the following passage from the same address, referring to the soldiers who fought in the Revolution:

[6] Herndon and Weik, II, 4.

[7] John G. Nicolay and John Hay, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 12.

They are gone. They were a forest of giant oaks; but the all-restless hurricane has swept over them, and left only here and there a lonely trunk, despoiled of its verdure, shorn of its foliage, unshading and unshaded, to murmur in a few more gentle breezes, and to combat with its mutilated limbs a few more ruder storms, then to sink and be no more.[8]

If Lincoln favored the frenzy of Marco Bozzaris in this passage, he leaned to the side of Bombastes in the course of an address he made to the Washington Temperance Society at a public meeting held in Springfield, February 22, 1842:

Turn now to the temperance revolution. In it we shall find a stronger bondage broken, a viler slavery manumitted, a greater tyrant deposed; in it, more of want supplied, more disease healed, more sorrow assuaged. By it no orphans starving, no widows weeping. By it, none wounded in feeling, none injured in interest; even the dram-maker and dram-seller will have glided into other occupations so gradually as never to have felt the change, and will stand ready to join all others in the universal song of gladness. And what a noble ally this is to the cause of political freedom; with such an aid its march cannot fail to be on and on, till every son of earth shall drink days when all appetites controlled, all poisons subdued, all matters subjected—mind, all conquering mind, shall live and move, the monarch of the world. Glorious consummation! Hail, fall of fury! Reign of reason, all hail![9]

The strain of the sophomore manifested itself in Lincoln's speech as late as 1850. In Chicago, July 25, 1850, the following words flowed from his lips, in eulogy of the late President Taylor:

. . . Again the battle commenced, and raged till toward nightfall when the Mexicans were entirely routed, and the General (Taylor) with his fatigued and bleeding and reduced battalions marched into Fort Brown. There was a joyous meeting. A brief hour before, whether all *within* the fort had perished, all *without* feared, but none could tell—while the incessant roar of artillery, wrought those *within* to the highest pitch of apprehension, that their brethren *without* were being massacred to the last man. And now the din of battle nears the fort obliquely by: a gleam of hope flies through the half imprisoned few; they fly to the wall; every eye is strained—it is—it is—the stars and stripes are still aloft! Anon the anxious brethren meet; and while hand strikes hand, the heavens are rent with a loud, long, glorious, gushing cry of victory! victory!! victory!!![10]

Form replaces substance in utterance when a man speaks to reveal himself instead of his text. The reverse of this rule also is true: for substance rules utterance when issues cry out within a man for expression. The time came when Lincoln addressed men to persuade them to act in ways not directly related to his own fate.

[8] *Ibid.*, vol. I, p. 14.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 63.
[10] Paul M. Angle, *New Letters and Papers*, (Boston, 1930), p. 70.

The cause which induced the change of attitude in him involved intimately the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, 1854. That action disturbed tremendously. The thought of losing the prize won by General Washington in the Revolution touched him deeply. Thereafter he seemed to look upon politics more objectively than he had done in the past. Something of religious fervor motivated him at times. That manner of greater disinterestedness manifested itself in his speech. The beginning of this new manner—the manner which became his historic approach to matters of politics—occurred on the afternoon of October 4, 1854, in Springfield. Coatless and wrapped in fitless pantaloons, he addressed an earnest crowd of Abolitionists, Free Soilers, Anti-Nebraska Democrats, and Old Line Whigs. He declared that slavery was wrong in principle, and being wrong in principle, its extension into protected and non-slave territory should be safe-guarded by such understandings as the Missouri Compromise. He neither sneered nor attitudinized nor took on the manner of Spartacus. He spoke not to win applause for himself. So far as it was human to do so, it would appear that Lincoln effaced his own fortunes from the discussion. It was at that moment that he shed the coat of Bombastes.

In sum: Our curiosity in this paper has concerned the diversity in style manifested by Lincoln in two widely separated periods of his career. In the years of his early manhood, he spoke with more heat than light. Our query has been to find the cause of his metamorphosis. In analyzing our problem, we have proceeded on the theory that every speaker is fundamentally a man, drawn into directions dictated by his own wants and desires. In Lincoln's case the dominant incentive of his being was his desire to hold distinction among his fellows. This development was nourished by the peculiar conditions under which his youth was spent in Indiana. The result of that desire made him vocal and brought to him a following. A career of politics and law followed. But seeking ever to go higher and higher in politics, his utterance sometimes turned to the froth of form instead of to the substance of thought. Ultimately, however, a great national issue rose. The Kansas-Nebraska Act caused Lincoln to concentrate on an issue greater than his own importance as a politician. The consequence of that conversion in his thinking revealed itself in a more simple, plain, and objective manner in his speech. At Gettysburg he was a man concerned entirely with the fate of a great social experiment. In his Second Inaugural he was Father Abraham.

THE PLACE OF RADIO IN THE SPEECH CURRICULUM TODAY

DONALD W. RILEY
Ohio State University

AN EDITORIAL entitled "Teaching a New Art" appeared in the April 2, 1933, edition of the *New York Times*. It stated that sixteen institutions of higher learning offered courses in broadcast speech and microphone technique. Also, that fifty other institutions provided some instruction in radio in connection with other courses. The March 12, 1933, edition of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer* quoted Mr. William S. Paley, President of the Columbia Broadcasting System, as follows: "Dramatics is mounting to a dominant position in broadcasting. New writing technique will be developed to fit the needs of radio."

Only as far back as 1933 sixteen universities offered radio instruction, and commercial radio officials prophesied the growth of special phases with which speech departments are now concerned. Today, approximately 180 institutions offer radio work for academic credit, an increase of 164 schools entering a new teaching area within a five-year period. Few other curricular items even remotely approach such phenomenal growth.

The initial lodging of most of the early radio instruction in speech work was natural. Talking comprised most of the early programs, and so it was obvious that voice training would be one of the most important elements. When college officials found that students were needing, and asking for, training in the new art, those officials turned, in most instances, to the speech, phonetics, and drama people on their staffs. That we have kept pace with the rapidly moving procession during this period is seen in the surveys of college radio instruction. None of the surveys are entirely adequate. It is difficult to survey so new a field. Courses are constantly being added and bulletin descriptions are often vague.

For information upon which to base this paper, a detailed study was made over only a portion of the field, but within that portion specific data was tabulated on the place of radio in the speech curriculum. To date, 280 college bulletins have been carefully covered. Fifty of the 280 institutions offer radio instruction. In this group of 50 there is a total of 100 non-technical radio courses carrying 228 hours academic credit. Assuming that this detailed study of a por-

tion of the picture is typical of the whole, we find the speech curriculum standing out boldly with its offering of 66, over one-half, of the 100 courses. Likewise, it leads in the number of hours' credit, affording 156 of the total 228. For contrast, here is the list of other department offerings: separate departments of radio give 14 courses with 28 hours credit; journalism departments list 9 courses carrying 22 hours; English departments offer 5 courses with 8 hours.

Now, let us recapitulate in order that the statistics of greatest significance to us are recalled. First, approximately 180 institutions now offer radio instruction. Secondly, that careful study of 50 institutions reveals the speech curriculum emerging with over one-half of the number of courses, and nearly two-thirds of the credit hours. In the whole picture, no other one department approaches the speech curriculum so far as quantity is concerned. We are the largest single factor.

Since, however, there are other elements appearing, we must be concerned with the effect of the whole picture. Four or five years ago it must have presented a sort of surrealistic effect to the casual observer. At that time in some universities, radio courses were allocated to seemingly odd places in the curriculum. Some institutions having small speech departments, and some speech departments not wishing to rush into this new field, caused a temporary lodging of radio in departments not very closely connected with the subject matter of the courses. I know of one instance in which script writing and general microphone technique were found in the institution's College of Engineering curriculum. In a great many places there was controversy over the bulletin listing of radio offerings. Should they be listed separately according to the department or college giving them, or should they be collected under one separate heading? In many cases in which the latter policy was observed, the result was sometimes a bit startling, even rather weird. The effect on the reader of the college bulletin was much the same as that of a surrealistic canvass on the art layman when the latter sees violently red lobsters crawling through the blond tresses of a peculiarly constructed female; or lopsided oysters emerging, for no particular reason, from a half-opened dresser drawer. In neither case does there seem to be much reason for the juxtaposition of the items. While there was not an overwhelming amount of this, there was enough to give the early radio instruction picture a tinge of the unreal. Some of it still remains. The most of the work, though, has found its place in the speech curriculum. On the score of quality, however, there seems to

be some difference of opinion. That faulty policies were present, that objectives were not always clear, that course contents were not in keeping with the objectives, and that the quality of instruction was not always up to par, were, I think, criticisms for which we were justly liable. During that early period of our radio teaching endeavours, we had to experiment with this new problem so suddenly dumped on our doorsteps. With clear conscience we can today reply that the causes for those defects are being eliminated; that we are painting a clearer picture in which the objectives are more sharply defined.

Let us consider some of the criticisms still leveled at us. Judging from course descriptions in some bulletins, the practice is too prevalent of trying to do too much in our course. The following description taken from a catalog is typical. "Radio Speaking—a study of and practice in, speaking, acting, announcing, advertising, program directing, continuity writing, voice training, interpretation, and education. Also, the writing, cutting, adapting, and coaching of radio drama—three hours per week." Twelve items—three hours per week! This is certainly an outstanding example of the abuse of the omnibus type of course. Practically every non-technical phase of radio boards this bus for a three-hour ride each week. Imagine, particularly those of you who are teachers, trying to stop this unwieldy bus long enough at each of the thirteen mentioned stops to disgorge, at the end of the trip, students who feel that the ride has been worth the time and the price of the ticket. There is a case for the omnibus or orientation course; a great deal is to be said for the argument that students should have a bird's-eye view of the whole radio field before they begin to specialize. However, if the omnibus course is used for the elementary work, then common sense must be exercised in selecting its content. Some of the items in the course description just read must be deleted: they could form the content for separate courses. Others could be covered more in lecture form by the instructor; and certainly the hours per week must be increased. I am not making a case either for or against the omnibus course. I cite it merely as a part of the radio speech curriculum today.

The second criticism pertains to the teachers themselves. With most of us this is rather a delicate subject. We are a little prone to resent any implication that our teaching may not be of the highest quality. We should be sensibly sensitive to criticism, but I see no reason why we should have the temerity to deem ourselves experts in this new field unless we have specifically prepared ourselves for it.

There is some justification for the charge made that educators on the air are a dull lot, and that those who teach radio are equally uninspiring to their students. We do tread difficult ground. We must keep in mind the cultural aim of all university teaching, and at the same time remember that the practical and commercial value of our radio offering is under scrutiny. Teachers of speech should not take up radio instruction on the assumption that being speech teachers adequately equips them for it. This subject was discussed at the 1937 Institute for Education by Radio. It was agreed that no teacher of speech, literature, composition, journalism, or any other subject should feel competent to teach radio unless he has (1) by experience and specific study, learned the techniques of adapting his subject to the air; (2) given evidence of sufficient general cultural background to be aware of his grave responsibility to teach radio as a social force, and the ability to instill this feeling in his students. Because of the criticisms of radio teachers, and because of the charge that educational programs are usually dull, a breach appeared between radio educators and commercial radio—a breach which, for a time, was alarmingly wide. Commercial radio was beginning to go its own way, without regard for its duty and opportunity to educate as well as to entertain. Educational radio was pointing the finger of academic scorn at the cheap frivolity of many commercial programs. Both factions were, of course, partly right and partly wrong.

It is gratifying to note that today this breach is being narrowed. How this was brought about is a long story. Briefly, the needless dissipation of time, energy, and money is being stopped because prominent educators and commercial radio officials see that coöperation benefits both factions. Educators in the field accept some of the necessary showmanship techniques to enliven their material and teaching. Commercial radio accepts some of the more purely educational matter, uses it in studio sustaining programs, and in a few instances, even secures commercial sponsorship for it. Other factors, too, play a part in narrowing the breach. The Federal Office of Education now looks to the rights of education on the air, and works with educators and commercial radio officials alike. Various foundations, whose money and influence further such causes, now make grants for the study of radio in education. They are also affording the opportunity to educational station officials and to teachers of radio to have direct contact with commercial radio organizations. An increasing number of such officials and teachers are spending periods of from three to six months working and studying in the larger com-

mercial networks. What the speech curriculum offers in radio instruction to the student of today, who will determine the quality of the radio programs of tomorrow, is of very great interest to commercial radio as well as to the educational group. While we are certainly in no position to crystallize any one set type of radio curriculum, we can give evidence that we are preparing ourselves to turn out students adequately equipped to enter the radio field professionally, or to use it in connection with whatever other work they may enter. In both cases they will understand and appreciate the significance of radio as an agency to be used in the public welfare instead of for purely selfish or unethical reasons.

Before I leave this matter of the teacher's qualifications, I feel impelled to say that we have not as yet achieved a universally acceptable degree of efficiency. The opportunities for the prospective radio teacher to secure a knowledge of the techniques are here. Contacts with commercial and educational stations are available. The speech departments of several institutions are now generally accepted as centers of learning in this field. Most of them offer the radio work in the summer curriculum, thus making it possible for teachers to prepare themselves so far as course work will do it. It behooves the teachers to make use of these opportunities. It behooves the chairmen of speech departments to look more diligently into the qualifications of those whom they place in charge of radio instruction. The cultural and the practical aims of radio in the speech curriculum are by no means incompatible in the present picture. We can so easily blunt the accusation that our offerings fall short of accomplishing either aim if we but have a body of competent teachers in this new area.

To paint a complete picture of radio in the speech curriculum today would require a few more strokes of the verbal brush. The question of the physical equipment itself is important. From personal knowledge I know of several colleges offering radio courses without facilities for practice with microphones. Unless some equipment, however limited, is available, radio instruction tends to become mere theory. Finally the present controversy over the particular subject matter belonging to the speech curriculum would have to be painted into the picture. Matters pertaining to voice training are universally allotted to speech. Dissension is rife, however, in many places, over such matters as the placing of script writing, drama, etc. The modern speech teacher, of course, knows that content and delivery cannot be divorced. This fact, though, is not acceptable to those who hold to

the obsolete conception of speech training as elocution. To complete the picture, a great deal more should be said of these last two matters.

From the somewhat surrealistic background of radio instruction for the past five or six years, the speech curriculum is painting a more comprehensible picture. It is only logical to assume that we will continue to be one of the largest single contributing forces in this picture. Hence our responsibility for the quality, as well as the quantity, of the future radio instruction picture is very great.

A SENSE OF DIRECTION IN HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING

ELBERT W. HARRINGTON
University of Colorado

DESPITE the attacks of uncompromising critics and the claims of chauvinistic advocates, debating in our high schools has had simply a normal development. Thousands of students participate each year and will no doubt continue to do so in the future.[1] But as in any other activity, constant effort should be made by those who direct it to seek means of improvement. How can we make debating serve better the interests of our students?

Three main problems stand out: (1) The relationship of debating to the regular curriculum, (2) the reconciliation of debate directing with sound teaching procedures, and (3) the administration of the debate program as it affects inter-school relationships within the debate leagues.

What should be the relationship of debating to the regular curriculum? The answer to this question involves our whole philosophy of extra-curricular work. A few years ago extra-curricular activities were regarded as mere appendages without any significant connection to the regular work of the school. They just grew like Topsy. But today we recognize their value. We accept them as an integral part of our educational structure. We want them to grow out of the

[1] In 1933 more than 6000 high schools and 100,000 high school students took part in the debate league programs in the thirty-three states co-operating with the National University Extension Association. Cf. William H. Witt, "Nation-wide High School Debating," *The Journal of the National Educational Association*, 22:13, January, 1933. A check through the bulletins of the various state leagues shows that debating is holding its own.

mercial networks. What the speech curriculum offers in radio instruction to the student of today, who will determine the quality of the radio programs of tomorrow, is of very great interest to commercial radio as well as to the educational group. While we are certainly in no position to crystallize any one set type of radio curriculum, we can give evidence that we are preparing ourselves to turn out students adequately equipped to enter the radio field professionally, or to use it in connection with whatever other work they may enter. In both cases they will understand and appreciate the significance of radio as an agency to be used in the public welfare instead of for purely selfish or unethical reasons.

Before I leave this matter of the teacher's qualifications, I feel impelled to say that we have not as yet achieved a universally acceptable degree of efficiency. The opportunities for the prospective radio teacher to secure a knowledge of the techniques are here. Contacts with commercial and educational stations are available. The speech departments of several institutions are now generally accepted as centers of learning in this field. Most of them offer the radio work in the summer curriculum, thus making it possible for teachers to prepare themselves so far as course work will do it. It behooves the teachers to make use of these opportunities. It behooves the chairmen of speech departments to look more diligently into the qualifications of those whom they place in charge of radio instruction. The cultural and the practical aims of radio in the speech curriculum are by no means incompatible in the present picture. We can so easily blunt the accusation that our offerings fall short of accomplishing either aim if we but have a body of competent teachers in this new area.

To paint a complete picture of radio in the speech curriculum today would require a few more strokes of the verbal brush. The question of the physical equipment itself is important. From personal knowledge I know of several colleges offering radio courses without facilities for practice with microphones. Unless some equipment, however limited, is available, radio instruction tends to become mere theory. Finally the present controversy over the particular subject matter belonging to the speech curriculum would have to be painted into the picture. Matters pertaining to voice training are universally allotted to speech. Dissension is rife, however, in many places, over such matters as the placing of script writing, drama, etc. The modern speech teacher, of course, knows that content and delivery cannot be divorced. This fact, though, is not acceptable to those who hold to

the obsolete conception of speech training as elocution. To complete the picture, a great deal more should be said of these last two matters.

From the somewhat surrealistic background of radio instruction for the past five or six years, the speech curriculum is painting a more comprehensible picture. It is only logical to assume that we will continue to be one of the largest single contributing forces in this picture. Hence our responsibility for the quality, as well as the quantity, of the future radio instruction picture is very great.

A SENSE OF DIRECTION IN HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING

ELBERT W. HARRINGTON
University of Colorado

DESPITE the attacks of uncompromising critics and the claims of chauvinistic advocates, debating in our high schools has had simply a normal development. Thousands of students participate each year and will no doubt continue to do so in the future.[1] But as in any other activity, constant effort should be made by those who direct it to seek means of improvement. How can we make debating serve better the interests of our students?

Three main problems stand out: (1) The relationship of debating to the regular curriculum, (2) the reconciliation of debate directing with sound teaching procedures, and (3) the administration of the debate program as it affects inter-school relationships within the debate leagues.

What should be the relationship of debating to the regular curriculum? The answer to this question involves our whole philosophy of extra-curricular work. A few years ago extra-curricular activities were regarded as mere appendages without any significant connection to the regular work of the school. They just grew like Topsy. But today we recognize their value. We accept them as an integral part of our educational structure. We want them to grow out of the

[1] In 1933 more than 6000 high schools and 100,000 high school students took part in the debate league programs in the thirty-three states co-operating with the National University Extension Association. Cf. William H. Witt, "Nation-wide High School Debating," *The Journal of the National Educational Association*, 22:13, January, 1933. A check through the bulletins of the various state leagues shows that debating is holding its own.

actual needs of the classroom, and we expect them to return to give life and meaning to the curricular work.[2]

Has debating in our high schools progressed according to this philosophy? The answer is no, except as an activity generally performs some useful service to the school as a whole. Lack of correlation of curricular and extra-curricular speech work exists, usually because classroom work in speech is not given except incidentally in written English courses and then as likely as not by teachers not specifically trained in speech. In most schools debating is still treated as an appendage, often offered as a sideline by some teacher of history or manual training, and only vaguely related to the curriculum.

At least two bad effects of such a development should be pointed out. Certainly it results in a great deal of drudgery for the director of debate. No one knows better than he how carefully and laboriously beginning students have to be guided. Long hours have to be given over to individual instruction in presentation, not to mention instruction in gathering and assimilating materials. Directing debate is time-consuming even when talented and experienced students are involved. What a boon it would be to debate teachers if elementary speech training could be given in the classroom!

But teachers might go on uncomplaining were it not for the bad effects of such a system on the students. Debating is a specialized speaking situation. It is a forensic test that should make any experienced speaker pause. Yet we take freshmen and sophomores in high school, who have had no previous speaking experience whatsoever, and plunge them headlong into debate. Should we wonder why bad speaking habits result?[3]

Public speaking is an art the teaching of which should not be forced. Beginning students should be given easy speaking situations at first and from them should pass by slow and natural stages to

[2] The philosophy that extra-curricular activities should grow out of the needs of the classroom and "return to enrich" the curriculum is essentially that of such writers as Elbert K. Fretwell, *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools* (1931), pp. 4–5; Harry C. McKown, *Extra-curricular Activities* (1927), pp. 7–8; Rivera Harding Jordan, *Extra-curricular Activities* (1928), p. 7; Charles R. Foster, *Extra-curricular Activities in the High School* (1925, p. 8; Paul W. Terry, *Supervising Extra-curricular Activities* (1930), p. 230. The quotation is from Fretwell.

[3] For example, see comment by Arleigh B. Williamson, "A Proposed Change in Intercollegiate Speaking," THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XIX (1933), p. 197.

more complicated ones.[4] They should not be asked to debate until they have shown that they are prepared for it. The most natural place to give this preliminary training is in the classroom. Individual instruction is satisfactory only when enough time is taken, for time is often an important element in the maturation process.

The writer is cognizant that years may elapse before we attain a correct correlation of curricular and extra-curricular speech activities. But in the meantime we can plot our course and know what we want if and when we can get it. We can know that debating would serve our students better if it could grow out of the needs of actual classes in speech, and that classes in speech would in turn be improved by the additional training debating affords.

Giving debate a closer connection to the regular curriculum, however, would be of little avail, if sound teaching procedures for the subject were not possible. Can we reconcile debate coaching with good teaching? There are many who believe we can. But first we must attain a correct philosophy of debating, a condition essential to good teaching of any subject. We have an example among the Greeks of the harm that was done through holding a false philosophy of rhetoric. Many of the Sophists were no doubt good teachers from the immediate point of view, but the philosophy they held concerning rhetoric caused this subject eventually to fall into ill repute.

What should be our philosophy of debating? There are at least two schools of thought. Some people hold debating to be an intellectual game. The writer can see little hope for progress in this view. He is frank to confess that, if this is all there is to it, he much prefers other intellectual games such as the give and take of quiet conversation over a cup of coffee, the reading of detective stories, or even bridge or poker. If crowds and cheering sections are the aim, he much prefers athletic contests. They are more fun.

Other people hold debating to be a teaching device, a view espoused here. Holding this view, it is impossible for us to squirm away from educational ideals. We become teachers and not coaches. The great question of decisions largely fades into one of mere incentives which some teachers need and others can get along without. Lack of large audiences is no more of a worry than lack of visitors

[4] The philosophy that speech training should start with easy and proceed to more complicated and specialized stages has been particularly stressed for years by Dr. Harry G. Barnes, of the Speech Department of the University of Iowa.

at a demonstration of any classroom work. We like the parents to come, but if they fail us, we don't close up our schools. In debating we have only to raise the question of what we teach. Taking the hint from Plato's *Meno,* we know that at least we can concentrate on good speaking. There is little excuse for us to fail in teaching the proper invention of materials, their proper arrangement, the elements of good style, ways of committing to memory, and the essentials of good delivery.

Space does not permit treatment of all five of these aspects of speech, but special attention should be directed to what the ancients called invention, or what we may call thinking through the subject.[5] According to John Dewey, reflective thought is "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends." [6]

Dewey's definition might well be the definition of one of the most important parts of debate. Debating can be an active, persistent, and careful consideration of beliefs and supposed forms of knowledge. In no other speaking situation is there such constant questioning of sources, premises, inferences, and data. Under ordinary circumstances, the classroom teacher cannot give such training. In other speaking situations courtesy, the time element, the nature of the question, or the spell of oratory usually prevent such checking. Debating as a speech device stands in a class by itself. Good debate abhors a fallacy.

But as in any other subject, there can be good teaching and there can be bad teaching. Debate should be judged by its possibilities and not by its misuse. Long ago in the field of rhetoric Aristotle called attention to a fallacy in Plato's thinking. Plato found it extremely difficult to separate rhetoric from the uses to which it might be put. In his *Rhetoric* Aristotle unhesitatingly made the distinction. Today in debate work we could make the same mistake that Plato made. It would be easy to list all the unwise and unfair practices in which debaters and debate teachers have indulged, and having listed them, call debate a sham. But our real interest is in what can be made of

[5] The author is fully aware of the varying views which have been held throughout the ages on the subject of invention.

[6] *How We Think* (1910) p. 6. It is interesting to note that Dewey considered the whole object of intellectual education the formation of logical disposition. See p. 58.

debate rather than in what has been made of it.

It is not necessary that the debater be unscientific in his approach. He should regard his task as any other scholar regards his work. The debater should gain a thorough knowledge of his subject based on wide reading, thinking and discussion. He should know the techniques and means of research. He should use his materials and watch his thinking with the same degree of care and honesty as is displayed by any other scholar. In other words, the same process of weighing, testing, supporting, and verifying thought and materials which any scholar employs is the process which the debater should employ. The only difference is that in one case the process may be entirely a mental one, while in the other it involves the complete speaking act. At the end of a given period of time, however, the result should be the same.

Is this approach to debate an impossible ideal? If it is, then perhaps all teaching is an impossible ideal. If it is not, then the instructor of debate must approach as close to the goal as the abilities of his students permit. Careful attention to educational ideals in the aspect of invention can do much to make debating "the art of speaking well" with all that Quintilian had in mind when he gave us this definition.[7]

What parts of our administrative machinery serve and what parts do not serve to facilitate good teaching of debate? The present organization is familiar to all. The debate leagues divide the states into districts, and after a series of eliminations a state champion is created. The National Forensic League holds a national tournament in which presumably a national champion is chosen.

There are good arguments for retaining much of this machinery. State-wide organizations perform many valuable functions. A sense of unity is created, and higher standards are maintained. Not the least of the advantages is the prevention of in-breeding and provincialism. Many a high school student has been spoiled or stopped in his development, because he was such a success in the class play or home debate that he could not be impressed with the fact that there were others who were just as good if not better than he. A state organization does much to raise the standard of the ideal for such people. Whether a national organization can add sufficiently to these advantages to justify its existence is at the present time a matter of opinion.

[7] *Institutes of Oratory*, XV: 38 (J. S. Watson translation).

The rapid growth of tournament debating has caused some to raise eyebrows. These critics look back on the old days when high school teams worked for months on a question in preparation for a single debate or at the most two or three a season. Now debaters point with pride to a record of forty, fifty, and even a hundred or more debates in a single season. How many debates are enough?

In answering this question we should remember that tournament debating arose to meet a need. It started as an efficient and inexpensive method of bringing the teams together.[8] It has remained to take the place of many of the usual practice sessions which teams formerly held in their own classrooms. But the new method has brought new problems. One is the strenuousness of tournament debating. Debaters are rushed from one room to another, and those who go to the top often finish in a state of near exhaustion. Such extreme activity makes many of us turn longingly back to the days of the early Greeks. At that time a remarkable civilization was attained, based to a large degree on the philosophy of harmony and proportion. Is it not possible for us to learn a lesson from these early people? Such a lesson would teach directors to make tournaments less strenuous and debate instructors not to attempt to take in every debate tournament in the country.

Closely associated with tournament debating is the idea of the speech institute. It provides not only an excellent opportunity for debaters to fraternize but the means for some real instruction through talks by authorities, round table discussions on debating, and perhaps demonstration debates. Debate instructors should give some serious attention in the future to this service. There are perhaps more possibilities in it than have yet been realized, and it should not be allowed to degenerate into just one more debate tournament.[9]

Careful consideration should be given by speech teachers to the proposed change in administration of debate leagues which would eliminate decisions in all debates which now lead to the establishment of champions and would substitute for them a system of ratings. That is, instead of selecting a winner, each team would be

[8] Joseph F. O'Brien, "The Status Quo in Debate," THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XX (1934), pp. 365–377.

[9] For a discussion of speech institutes in Wisconsin, see the article by Almere L. Scott, "Speech Institutes for High School Students," THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXIII (1937), pp. 81–83. The Iowa High School Forensic League during the course of the year holds several of these institutes in different parts of the state.

rated superior, good, or average as the case might be and according to the rating scale adopted.

Such a rating system should improve debating as a teaching device. For the student it would more surely recognize merit and help eliminate from our league debates the elements of luck and chance. If desired, critic judges could be given the privilege of cross-examination of the speakers on arguments and sources. For the teacher much of the strain or worry would disappear. One whose teams received a superior rating could go home not only with greater confidence in his teaching but conscious that the world about him was aware of the valadity of his methods. Under the present system very few people appreciate that a team is good unless it actually wins the debate. For debating as an institution, such a system would help do away with jockeying for places and politics in selecting judges and should establish a more healthful atmosphere all around.

This method of rating is not without precedent. Music, play, and interpretative reading festivals have been conducted satisfactorily for years under a system of ratings.[10] Teachers of speech might well apply the method to debate.

Analysis of the main problems of high school debating shows the necessity for several changes. If we were to lay out a five-year program the following reforms should be placed well toward the top:

A. A closer connection between the curricular and the extra-curricular speech work. The curricular program in speech could serve to give preliminary training to prospective debaters, and debating, in turn, could be used to give additional speech training to students who are not satisfied with class work alone.

B. Better standards in teaching debate. These standards may be brought about through a frank recognition that we are dealing with an educational device, and through greater concentration on good teaching in all five of the aspects of speaking.

C. Changes in administration of the debate program. Specifically these changes should include a moderation in the use of tournament debating, a further development of speech institutes, and the adoption of a system of ratings at least for all debates sponsored by debate leagues which now lead to the establishment of champions.

[10] At the University of Iowa, for example.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PERIODICAL LITERATURE ON DEBATING AND DISCUSSION

HENRY LEE EWBANK
University of Wisconsin

THIS bibliography of periodical literature supplements Professor Dayton D. McKean's bibliography of books and pamphlets on debating published in the April, 1933, issue of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH. I have not included the rather long list of articles to be found in the twenty-three volumes of the JOURNAL.

The current interest in group discussion has occasioned the publication of a great number of articles describing the aims, values, and methodology of various discussion techniques. A considerable number of articles that emphasize the discussion of a particular topic and deal only incidentally with the discussion method have been omitted from this bibliography. I have included only those dealing with (*a*) the functions of debate and discussion in a democratic society, (*b*) descriptions of different types of discussion, (*c*) the use of the discussion method in teaching various classroom subjects (*d*) the use of the discussion method in adult education, and (*e*) methods of measuring the effectiveness of debate or discussion.

I. REFERENCES BEFORE 1900

"Argument from Analogy," *Eclectic Review*, CIX, 94.

Bacon, C. F., "Intercollegiate Debating," *Forum*, XXVI (1898), 222–28.

Baker, George P., "Debating at Harvard," *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, VII (1899), 369–72.

"These debates (1892) were to be without judges or decisions of any kind. This arrangement proved unsatisfactory, and therefore, in 1893, came the first step in the inevitable development—judges were chosen and a decision given."

Buckley, James M., "Debate and Composition: Their Relation to Symmetrical Culture," *The Chautauquan*, XIII (1889), 18.

Buckley, James M., "Preparation and Action in Debate," *The Chautauquan*, XVIII (1894), 659–64; "Principles and Practice of Debate," 402–07; "Public Oral Debate," 532–36.

"Dangers of Debating," *Bentley's Miscellany*, XIX (1891), 615–.

Dickens, Charles, "Our Debating Society," *All the Year Round*, XLIII (1879), 85–9.

Editorial, "Debating Clubs in England," *Chambers' Edinburgh Journal*, V (1848), 107-09.

English, C. D., "Inefficiency of Argument," *Overland*, XVII, n. s. (1891), 59.

McElligott, James N., "Debating—A Means of Educational Discipline," *American Journal of Education,* I (1856), 495–502.
Miller, M. M., "Debating in American Colleges," *Bachelor of Arts,* II, 208.
Pierce, Charles S., "The Critic of Arguments," *Open Court,* VI (1892), 3391–94; 3415–18.
Ringwalt, R. C., "Intercollegiate Debating," *Forum,* XXII (1897), 633–40.
Smith, G. J., "The Teaching of Argumentation," *Educational Review,* XIV, 41.
"Village Debating Societies," *Knickerbocker's,* XLV (1855), 156–66.
Vrooman, Carl, "College Debating," *Arena,* X (1894), 677–83.

II. REFERENCES, 1900–1937

Adult Education and the Library
Lenhart, Elta, "Discussion Groups," V (1930), 35–52.
Agricultural Education
Gray, L., "Procedure for a Panel Discussion," VIII (1936), 117.
Ross, W. A., "Panel Method of Group Discussion," VIII (1936), 19.
American Historical Association, Report
Adams, C. F., "Political Debate," I, 47-93.
American Magazine
Kelley, Hubert, "Democracy Goes to School," CXIX (1935), 27.
Wiggins, A. E., "How to Win an Argument," CX (1930), 41.
Archives of Psychology
Chen, William, "The Influence of Oral Propaganda upon Students' Attitudes," XXIII (1933).
Wilkie, Walter, "An Experimental Comparison of the Speech, the Radio, and the Printed Page as Propaganda Devices," (1934).
Bookman
"College Debating," (Three book reviews) XXII (1906), 528-29.
British Journal of Educational Psychology
Pear, T. H., "Desirability of Teaching School Children the Technique of Discussion," VI (1936), 9-22.
California Journal of Elementary Education
Hefferman, Helen, "The Panel Technique of Group Discussion," III (1934)
California Journal of Secondary Education
Bursch, James F., "Is a Substitute for Debate Needed to Provide Training in Scientific Group Thinking?" VI (1931), 254-6.
Reed, M. E., "Does Debate Have a Place in Our Schools?" XII (1937), 300-02.
Catholic World
Thompson, G. W., "When the Schoolmen Came to Brooklyn," CXLII (1935), 38-44.
Century
Frank, Glenn, "Parliament of the People," XCVIII (1919), 401-16.
Lyman, R. L., "College Debating," LXXXII (1911), 937-42.
Colorado School Journal
Thompson, R., "Character Education through Debating," XLV (1930), 45.
Current Opinion
Grant, Percy S., "Objects and Methods of the International Forum," LXIV (1918), 287.

Grant, Percy S., "Open Forum in America as a Safeguard against Revolution," LXIV (1918), 172-3.

Education

Diamond, Thomas, "The Conference as a Method of Instruction in Adult Education," LVI (1936), 297-301.

Goodhue, W. S., "Motivating Method Used in Practice Teaching," LVII (1937), 294-98.

Hatch, R. W., "Teaching Controversial Issues in the Classroom," LVII (1936), 140-44.

Lyon, L. S., "Inter and Intra High School Contests," XXXIII (1912), 33-38.

Mauller, C. T., "A Solution for Public Speaking in the High School," XXXIV (1913), 162-68.

Shepard, G. F., "Symposium Better than Debate," LII (1931), 211-13.

Smith, M. A., "Debating Problems in High School and College," XXXVII (1916), 160-66.

"The Civic Debate," XXXIV (1914), 290-91.

Thompson, R. N., "Strangling Debate," L (1930), 555-58.

Trueblood, Thomas C., "Forensic Training in College," XXVII (1907), 381-92.

Watkins, D. E., "Group Systems in Interscholastic Debate," XXXIV (1914), 416-20.

Educational Method

Bennett, H. Arnold, "Limits of the Discussion Method," X (1930), 104-09.

Educational Outlook (London)

Sykes-Marshall, J. G., "Debating as an Aid to Character Training," XII (1937), 25.

Educational Research Bulletin (Ohio State University)

Pollard, Elizabeth W., "Give Youth Discussion Practice," XIII (1934), 148-50.

Educational Review

Baker, George P., "Intercollegiate Debating," XXI (1901), 244.

Baldwin, Charles S., "Intercollegiate Debate," XLII (1911), 475-85.

Brigance, W. N., "The Debate as Training for Citizenship," LXXII (1926), 222-25.

Comstock, Alazada, "The Cost of Debating," LXX (1925), 24-5.

Mangun, V. L., "The Mind-Bedevilment Caused by Debate," LXXIV (1927), 155-62.

Mangun, V. L., "Debating: Sophism Institutionalized," LXXIV (1927), 195-201.

English Journal

Becher, E. T., "Shall the Audience Decide?" XVI (1927), 203-12.

Carroll, H. A., "Psychological Story of an Interscholastic Debate," XX (h.s.ed., 1931), 756-60.

Coffman, G. R., "A New Plan for High School Debating," VI (1917), 108.

Freeburg, O., "Debating in the College Curriculum," IV (1915), 577-81.

Gettemy, J. E., "Discussion Contests," XI (1922), 293-96.

Gosling, T. W., "Reorganization of Methods of Debate in High Schools," IX (1920), 147-52.

Hackett, Wm. A., "This Thing Called Debate," XXI (col. ed., 1932), 810-16.
Hardy, W. G., and Jones, L. C., "Debate in the Modern Curriculum," XXVII (col. ed., 1938), 346-49.
Howes, R. F., "Shall Debating Secede?" XVIII (col. ed., 1929), 411-15.
Lockridge, R. F., "New Era in High School Discussion Contests," IV (1915), 15-20.
Lyon, L. S., "Some Types of Public Speech," VIII (1919), 602-09.
Otis, A. T., "Appreciation and Management of High School Debates," III (1914), 94-98.
Paget, E. H., "The Audience Vote," XVII (col. ed., 1928), 320-25.
Richards, E. B., "The Game of Debate," IX (1920), 147-52.
Roberts, H. D. and Fox, H., "Streamlining the Forum and Debate," XXVI (h.s. and col. ed., 1937), 275-82.
Shepard, Warren, "Three Types of Conference," XIX (1930), 487-89.
Sibley, R. P., "A Neglected Form of Argument," X (1921), 35-8.
Thompson, R. N., "Debate Audiences and What They Want," XX (Col. ed., 1931), 590-92.
Thompson, R. N., "Literary and Debating Societies," XIX (1930), 222-27.
White, H. A., "The Recent Trend in Debating," XVIII (col. ed., 1929), 320-29.
"Work in Debates," II (1913), 389-90.

Harvard Graduates' Magazine
"Harvard-Oxford Debate," XXXI (1922), 216-18.
Ringwalt, R. C., "How to Improve Intercollegiate Debating," IX (1901), 337-39.
Stone, A. P., "Debating at Harvard," XVI (1908), 620-23.

High School Journal
Maaske, R. J., "Using the Panel Discussion Method in High School Teaching," XXI (1938), 44-8.
Pore, O. E., "Debate as a High School Elective," XIX (1936), 39-40.
Stenius, A., "Eenie, Meenie, Minie, Mo and Debating," XIX (1936), 41-5.

High School Teacher
Jay, J. A., "Debate and Character Development," VI (1930), 292.
Moore, W. M., "What are the Values in Debate?" IX (1933), 236.
Powers, R. A., "Method of Pupil Effort in High School Forensics," IX (1933), 262.
Welch, J. D., "Debating in the Secondary Schools," V (1929), 5-8.

Independent
Brundin, A. S., "New Social Invention," XC (1917), 248.

Industrial Arts and Vocational Education
Bedell, E. L., "Panel Discussion Method," XXII (1933), 203-05.

Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology
Jenness, Arthur, "Social Influences in the Change of Opinions," XXVII (1932), 29-34.
Jenness, Arthur, "The Role of Discussion in Changing Opinion Regarding a Matter of Fact," XXVII (1932), 279-96.
Watson, Goodwin B., "Do Groups Think More Efficiently Than Individuals?" XXIII (1928), 328-36.

Wheeler, David and Jordan, Howard, "Change of Individual Opinion to Accord with Group Discussion," XXIV (1929), 203-06.

Journal of Adult Education

Adams, Lucy W., "A Mirror of Minds," VII (1935), 21-7.

Adams, William F., "The Cross-section Round Table," V (1933), 61-3.

Cambridge, Elsie G., "Farmers' Forums," VI (1934), 181-85.

Cartwright, Morse A., "Panel," V (1933), 37–42.

Dooley, R. E., "A Village Forum," VII (1935), 147-49.

Fansler, Thomas, "Leaders in Training," VI (1934), 412-17.

"The Test of Method," VI (1934), 171-74.

Graham, Gladys M., "Discussion Method and Speech Training," IV (1932), 404-08.

Gross, Alfred A., "A Community Discussion Group," XI (1929), 287-90.

Leys, W. A. R., "Can Forum Discussions be Reasonable?" X (1938), 61-6.

Overstreet, H. A., "When Words Go Forth to Battle," X (1938), 5-11.

Pfeffer, Nathanial, "A Recantation," VII (1935), 125-29.

Wiener, P. P., "Scientific Method and Group Discussion," IX (1937), 136-40.

Journal of Education

Dunn, A. W., "Civic Education through Discussion," LXXX (1914), 38.

Seymour, M. A., "Debating Clubs for Grammar Schools," LXXXIV (1916), 578.

Waltz, Maynard C., "Learning by Group Discussion," CXVI (1933), 312–13.

Journal of Education (London)

Drake, John, "Making the Best of Discussion," LXIV (1932), 494-98.

Shillan, D., "Public Speaking in the Upper Fourth," LXV (1933), 762-3.

Journal of Education Research

Wrightstone, J. W., "An Instrument for Measuring Group Discussion and Planning," XXVII (1934), 641-50.

Journal of Home Economics

Lindeman, Eduard C., "The Place of Discussion in the Learning Process," XXVII (1935), 348-50.

Needham, Irene B., "The Uses and Limitations of the Discussion Method," XXVII (1935), 514.

Journal of Social Psychology

Knower, F. H., "A Study of the Effect of Oral Argument on Changes of Attitude," VI (1935), 315-47.

Junior College Journal

Boyd, R., "Debating in Mississippi Junior Colleges," IV (1933), 127–29.

Larson, P. M., "Objective of Junior College Debating," III (1932).

Shackson, R. S., "Junior College Debating," II (1931), 39-41.

Junior-Senior High School Clearing House

Bradford, A. L., "Can the Debate Idea Be Saved?" IX (1934), 219–22.

Dahlberg, W. A., "The Debate Idea Can Be Saved," IX (1935), 497–99.

Kansas Teacher

Bass, W. W., "Debate as an Extra-Curricular Activity," XXXII (1931), 13.

Mayer, J. E., and others, "Character Education through Debating," XXXV (1932), 17-9.

Library Journal
Peterson, M. O., "Des Moines Holds Public Forums," LVIII (1933), 453-54.
Living Age
Belloc, H., "Essay on Controversy," CCCIV (1920), 667-70.
Chesterton, Cecil, "The Technique of Controversy," CCLXXIV (1912), 676-83.
Nation
"College Debating and Writing," XC (1910), 452–53.
Foster, W. T., "Intercollegiate Debating," LXXXVI (1908), 420-21.
Green, C., "Debating at School," XC (1910), 627.
Ringwalt, R. C., "Intercollegiate Debating," LXXI (1900), 489.
Robbins, E. C., "College Debating," XC (1910), 556.
"Teaching Argumentation," XCIV (1912), 456–57.
"Value of Debate," XC (1910), 154-55.
National Education Association Journal
Gray, L., "Procedure for a Panel Discussion," XXIV (1935), 143.
Harvey, P. C., "How Shall Debates be Judged?" XIII (1924), 106.
"Outcomes of School Debating," XXI (1932), 21-4.
Parker, W. W., "Why Should Debates be Judged?" XIII (1924), 301.
Studebaker, J. W., "Ideas Have a Chance in Des Moines," XXII (1933), 152.
Witt, W. H., "Nation-Wide High School Debating," XXII (1933), 13-4.
National Education Association, Proceedings
Baker, George P., "The Teaching of Argumentative Discourse in High School," (1903), 460-66.
Cousins, R. B., "Athletics and Forensics," (1929), 887-92.
Hartwell, Chas. S., "The Teaching of Argumentative Discourse in High School," (1903), 446-.
Nebraska Education Journal
Betz, E. S., "Is Debating Immoral?" XV (1936), 278-79.
Hamilton, H. W., "Popularizing Debate," XV (1935), 43-4.
Newell, G. A., "Stimulating Interest in Forensics," XVII (1937), 43.
New Outlook
White, Trumbull, "Cultivating the Knowledge Crop," CLXV (1935), 25-8.
New Republic
Bourne, Randolph, "On Discussion," VII (1916), 87-9.
"Collegiate Debating," LXXIX (1934), 221.
Wagner, R. H., "Collegiate Debating, a Reply," LXXX (1934), 313.
North American Review
Grant, Percy S., "Open Forum Movement," CCIII (1916), 81-92.
Ohio Schools
"Confusion in High School Debating," XI (1933), 9.
Outlook
"Debaters and Orators," CXXI (1919), 622–23.
"Open Forum and Its Influence," CX (1915), 357-58.
"Wits vs. Convictions," CIV (1913), 271-72.
Pennsylvania School Journal
Thompson, R. N., "The Thrill of Achievement," LXXVIII (1930), 149.
Tinkcom, H. M., "Debating for Citizenship," LXXIX (1931), 602.

Popular Education

Holt, H. Q., "Arguing Differences in Open Debate," XLII (1925), 449.

Progressive Education

Powers, J. O. and Black, Florence M., "Exploring the Discussion Method Scientifically," XII (1935), 85-8.

Public

Coleman, G. W., "Get Together in the Open Forum," XXII (1919), 871-73.

Readers Digest

High, Stanley, "America Talks It Over," XXXII (1938), 73–5.

Melick, W., "National Heckle Hour: America's Town Meeting of the Air," XXVIII (1936), 42-6.

Saturday Review

Berkeley, R., "On Visiting the Cambridge Union," CLII (1931), 78-9.

School Activities

Belfour, C. S., "Selecting a National Debate Question," IX (1938), 354-56.

Murray, Elwood, "Forensic Experience Progression," IX (1938), 359-60.

School and Society

Bacon, F. L., "Improving Education through Discussion Groups," XLVI (1937), 225-31.

"Debating at Western Reserve University," XXI (1925), 534.

DeLong, L. R. and Smith, H. B., "The Discussion Technique," XXXIII (1931), 704-08; 533-05.

Eggersten, Claude, "Forms Then and Now," XLIV (1936), 412-16.

Hanson, A. O., "The Discussion Technique," XXXIV (1931), 93-5.

Holton, E. L., "A Study of Methods of Presenting Subject Matter . . Lecture vs. Discussion vs. Laboratory," XI (1920), 58-9.

"Improving Secondary Education through Group Discussion," XLIV (1936), 855-56.

Kamiat, A. H., "The Competitive Debate," XIX.

Mason, J. B., "Public Forums vs. Propaganda," XLVI (1937), 311-13.

Rapport, V. A. and Barnett, J. H., "Stimulating Student Activity," LXIV (1936), 409-10.

Terry, P. W., "Stimulating Discussion in College Classes," XLV (1937), 653-56.

White, H. A., "Debating in our High Schools," XXVIII (1928), 660–62.

Withington, Robert, "On College Debating," XXVII (1928), 770-74.

School Life

"Debating as an Intellectual Activity in High Schools," XVI (1930), 43-4.

Jones, Elmer C., "Train Leaders for . . . Discussion," XVI (1931), 197.

Studebaker, J. W., "Des Moines Forum Experiment," XVIII (1933), 175.

Studebaker, J. W., "What I Mean by Public Forums," XXI (1935), 334.

"Town Hall of Washington," XX (1934), 74–5.

School Review

Adams, W. H., "The Selection of the Proposition for Debate," XXXV (1927), 538-47.

Churchill, G. B., "Public Speaking Work in the Secondary School," XI (1903), 269-87.

Gardner, Bertha Lee, "Debating in the High School," XIX (1911), 534-45.

Hartwell, E. C., "Debating in the High School," XIX (1911), 689-93.

Johnson, Roy I., "Standards in Round-Table Discussion," XXXVIII (1929), 44-8.
Kittredge, W. H., "The Function of the High School Debating Society," X (1902), 292-97.
"Open Forum Policy and Practice in Milburn High School," XLIV (1936), 408.
Reavis, Wm. C., "Interscholastic Non-Athletic Activities in Selected Secondary Schools," XLI (1933), 417-28.
Stowe, A. Monroe, "The Motivation of Debate in Our Secondary Schools," XIX 1911), 546-49.
Tyler, I. K., "Discussion as an Important Form of Speech," XLVI (1938), 167-69.

Scribners
"A Matter of Debate," XLVII (1910), 378-79.

Secondary Education
Reynolds, W. H., "Panel Discussion in the High School Classroom," IV (1935), 235-38.

Social Studies
Bohlman, Edna M., "The Teaching of Current Events by the Panel Forum Method," XXVI (1935), 91-6.

Sociology and Social Research
Bogardus, E. S., "Leaders of Panel Discussion," XX (1935), 71-4.
Davis, H. N., "Social Values of the Open Forum," XIII (1929), 256-64.

Survey
Benjamin, Paul L., "U Table," LXVIII (1932), 428.
"Civic Forum in America's Densest Crowd," XXXIV (1915), 531-32.
Coleman, G. W., "Salvaging the Four-Minute Men," XLI (1919), 924-25.
"Forum in Small Country Town," XLI (1919), 538.
Gage, L. J., "Open Forum," XLIII (1920), 485-86.
Grace, A. G., "Getting Group Discussion," LXI (1928), 94-5.
"New Solvent for Antagonisms," XXXVI (1916), 234.

Survey Graphic
Mundt, Karl, "Debaters and Doctors," XXV (1936), 511.

The Clearing House
Barnard, R. H., "The Evils of High School Debating," XII, 211-14.
Barr, W. M. and Lintz, O. L., "Our Personal Experience with Milburn's Open Forum," XII, 214-17.

The High School
Marshall, Iva R., "The Value of Debate in High-School," VI (1923), 159.

The High School Quarterly
Little, R. C., "Debating in the High School," (1918), 93.

University of Chicago Magazine
Moulton, H. G., "Debating in the University," V (1913), 114-19.

Wilson Bulletin
"College Debating," VI (1931), 306.

World Review
Craig, A. H. and Edgerton, A. C., "Art of Successful Debating," VII (1928), 182.

THE EFFECT OF SPEECH DEFECTS ON SECOND GRADE READING ACHIEVEMENT

MARGERY ANNE MOSS
Birmingham Public Schools

THE problem of pupils who are poor readers, despite remedial efforts and psychological encouragement, is one of the most disheartening issues facing primary teachers today. It is generally acknowledged that promotion and success in the first three grades is contingent upon a pupil's reading ability. Today we are becoming cognizant of the many factors which are constituent parts of the complex function designated as reading ability.

It is conceivable that a person of low mentality would encounter difficulty in learning to read. Specialists in education for the mentally retarded have perfected techniques and objectives, and are constantly striving to ameliorate the educational and socio-economic status of these mentally handicapped. However, it is not only these pupils of low intelligence who cannot ordinarily learn to read with facility, that constitute a problem to the teacher in the average elementary school, but also those pupils of average or superior intelligence who appear to have difficulty in reading. Realizing this, experts in the field of reading have formulated many theories as to causes which may be related to non-reading. One of the theories which has been accorded much publicity is the lack of reading readiness, which includes immature eyesight, immature mental development, insufficient vocabulary and lack of need and desire to read. Among the other hypotheses that have been projected as contributing factors in non-reading are congenital word blindness, poor hearing, and lack of proper attitude toward reading. Although speech defects have been generally accepted as being a definite handicap in learning to read, there has been little research either to substantiate or to disprove this assumption. The problem of this study is to determine whether children who have speech defects score lower on oral reading than children of comparable intelligence, chronological age and school achievement, who have normal speech.

A review of studies relating to school children with speech defects was made to determine what data has been found in this field and what conclusions had been drawn by the investigators. These studies revealed that the incidence of speech defects among school children is rather high, and that as a rule, children with speech defects have

comparable or superior intelligence when compared with children of normal speech. Yet the results of all of the studies reviewed were not in accord.

If children with speech defects have intelligence comparable to that of normal children, and the incidence of speech defective children is so great, then information about the effect of these defects on the pupil's school achievement is vital. Since the results of the different studies are not in accord, further study is indicated. Since reading is the most important subject in the primary grades, the problem of how defective speech affects the reading ability of primary children should be of importance to teachers of primary grades.

In dealing with this problem, nineteen public elementary schools in Birmingham, Alabama were used. These schools were selected because of their size and location throughout the city. Every type of community in the city was represented by at least one of the schools. It was felt that, due to the presence of immature speech, more cases of defective speech would be found in the first and second grades, and that pupils in these grades would be more accustomed to oral reading than pupils in other grades. The first grade was not used in the study because it was believed that an accurate reading test could not be obtained from pupils with so little experience in reading. Only pupils in senior or high second grade were used in the study, so that all of the pupils might have had a year and a half of reading experience. No pupils were included in the study who had not been in school for that length of time.

Every child used in the experiment had been given the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test at the time of his entrance to school, in the fall of 1936, and the scores from this test were used as a basis for matching the experimental and control groups.

The principals and teachers of the schools used were asked to select the pupils in their senior second grades whom they considered to have speech irregularities. The criterion taken for determining speech defects is one formulated by Travis:

> A speech or voice defect may be defined as an unusually conspicuous deviation in the speech pattern of an individual which is incapable of bringing about an adequate social response, and which by the same token constitutes a maladjustment to this environment.[1]

Each pupil recommended by his teacher or principal as having a speech defect was tested by a trained speech teacher having had

[1] L. E. Travis, *Speech Pathology* (1931), p. 36.

considerable experience in speech corrective work. Each pupil found to have a speech irregularity was then given the Gray Standardized Oral Reading Check Test, Set No. 1 and No. 2. The reading and speech tests were given individually in a quiet room, with only the investigator and the speech teacher present.

In order to be sure of having matched pairs, after the child with defective speech had been tested, the Pintner-Cunningham scores for the school being tested were gone over in order to find a normal pupil whose I.Q. and C.A. were fairly close to that of the defective child. If no pupil could be found whose I.Q. and C.A. were comparable to these data for the defective child, this defective child was dropped from the study. When a normal child was found who could be paired with a defective child, he was also given the Gray Reading Test. The speech teacher who gave the tests to the defective children also gave it to the normal pupils. It is interesting to note that four pupils who were picked as normal by the classroom teachers and the investigator were discovered to have speech deficiencies themselves. This shows that the incidence of defective speech may have been much larger than this study shows, as some defects are not easily recognizable to the laity.

In this way the experimental and control groups were formed. After all of the tests had been given, the speech teacher ranked the pupils in the order of their speech ability. The reading tests were scored and the pupils in both groups were ranked according to their reading scores, both rate and error. A correlation was then worked out between the pupils' scores on the speech test and their scores on the reading test. A frequency distribution was constructed for the I.Q.'s and C.A.'s of both the normal and defective groups, to find the difference in the mean of each group. A frequency distribution was made for the words missed on the reading test and for types of reading errors made. A chart was constructed to show the most prevalent type of speech defect and whether this defect was the result of habit or malformation.

There were several limitations recognizable in this study, even while it was in progress. The first limitation is that the incidence of speech defects among the senior second grade pupils of these Birmingham, Alabama, schools may be much larger than this study shows. The term "speech defect" has been used in a rather restricted sense, and on account of the method depended on for selection of cases, possibly not all of the speech defective pupils in the second grades of these schools were found, but rather only the most serious and

obvious cases. That some of the cases were overlooked by those of us not trained in speech correction is shown by the fact that some of the children designated as normal by the classroom teachers and the investigator were found to be defective in their speech by the trained speech teacher.

It is recognizable that because of certain varying factors in the testing situation, such as lack of uniformity in the time of day the tests were given, the physical condition of the children at the time of testing, and the difference in children's individual reaction to a testing situation, both the reading test scores and the speech test scores may not have been as accurate as they might have been.

In selecting the pupils to make up the experimental and control groups, the investigators tried to keep the chronological ages as nearly equal as possible, as well as the intelligence quotients, as it was felt that age is an important factor in reading readiness. Thirty-six matched pairs were available from the senior second grades of the nineteen schools visited. The entire number of children in the senior second grades of the nineteen schools was 983. Thus .036 percent of the children in the senior second grades of the nineteen schools were found to be defective in speech. This includes only the most obvious and serious cases.

In the thirty-six matched pairs, there was a difference of 1.8 in the median scores of the two groups, in favor of the experimental group, for scores on the intelligence test. The median score for the experimental group was 92.8, and for the control group, 91.

Table 1 gives a frequency distribution of the intelligence quotients for the experimental and control groups. The basis of the I.Q. scores is the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ACCORDING TO INTELLIGENCE

Experimental Group		Control Group	
I.Q.	Frequency	I.Q.	Frequency
120–140	1	100–120	5
100–120	11	80–100	19
80–100	13	60– 80	11
60– 80			
N—36		N—36	
Median—92.8		Median—91	
Q^1—76		Q^1—78.67	
Q^3—105.33		Q^3—96	
Q—14.67		Q—8.67	

This table is to be interpreted that there were thirty-six members in the experimental group and thirty-six in the control group. The median intelligence quotient for the experimental group was 92.8 and for the control group 91, or a difference of 1.8 in favor of the experimental group.

Fortunately it was possible to keep the chronological ages closer than the I.Q.'s. The median chronological age for both the experimental and control groups was 7:8.

Table II shows a frequency distribution of the chronological ages for both the experimental and control groups. No pupils were used who had a chronological age of less than 7:0 at the time of the test in February, 1938. The C.A.'s were computed from the data given on the cumulative record cards.

TABLE II

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ACCORDING TO CHRONOLOGICAL AGES

	Experimental Group	Control Group
C.A.	Frequency	Frequency
8:10–9:0	1	1
8: 3–8:10	1	1
8: 0–8:5	1	5
7:10–8:0	11	8
7: 5–7:10	11	17
7: 0–7:5	11	4
Median C.A.—7:8		Median C.A.—7:8

This is to be interpreted that the chronological ages for both groups were held just as equal as possible, and that the median C.A. for each of the groups was 7:8.

In giving the speech tests, the pupils found to be defective were grouped under three main classifications: faulty articulation, speech difficulties due to nervous conditions, and individual voice defects. Under the classification of faulty articulation came lisping, substitution of sounds, and foreign language difficulties. In one school, where the parents of the pupils were nearly all of foreign extraction, there were many pupils who substituted *d* for *th*. It is interesting to know that one child of American parentage was found in this school who also substituted *d* for *th*, as he heard the other children do.

Under the classification of speech difficulties due to nervous conditions, cases of stuttering, stammering and rapid speech were found,

while under the classification of individual voice defects, cases of nasality, hoarseness, high pitch, and indistinctness were found.

The most common defect was substitution of sounds, occurring in nineteen cases out of thirty-six. Only two of these cases of substitution of sounds were the result of malformation, both of these being malformation of the palate. The other cases were the result of faulty habit, carelessness, or improper training. With little corrective work, it seemed that most of these defects could be overcome.

Table III shows a classification of the different types of defective speech which were found among the senior second grade pupils used in this study. The speech teacher then ranked the experimental group according to their scores on the speech test.

TABLE III

CLASSIFICATION OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF SPEECH DEFECTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Defect	Frequency	Total
Faulty Articulation		32
1. Foreign Dialect	5	
2. Lisping	8	
3. Substitution of Sounds	19	
Difficulties due to Nervous Conditions		6
1. Stuttering, Stammering	5	
2. Rapid Speech	1	
Individual Voice Defects		11
1. Nasality	5	
2. Indistinctness, etc.	6	
Total	49	49

This table is to be read that there were forty-nine cases of defective speech among thirty-six pupils tested. This is interesting as it shows that some pupils had more than one type of defect. The most prevalent type of defect was substitution of sounds, occurring in nineteen cases out of forty-nine.

The reading test, Gray's Standardized Oral Reading Check Test, Set I, is divided into five parts, each part being of equal difficulty. Only the first two parts, No. 1 and No. 2, were given to the pupils used in this study. Each test is to be scored on both rate and errors.

Table IV gives a frequency distribution of the reading rate scores for both the experimental and control groups. The rate is for both test averages and is computed in seconds.

TABLE IV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP ACCORDING TO READING RATES

Experimental Group		Control Group
Rates in Seconds	Frequency	Frequency
165	1	
105	2	
90	0	
75	1	
65	1	1
60	1	
55	0	
50	3	3
45	2	
40	0	
35	7	2
30	9	6
25	3	10
20	4	3
15	1	11
N—36		N—36
Median—35.71		Median—27
Q^1—30.56		Q^1—14.9
Q^3—51.56		Q^3—32.35
Q—10.56		Q—8.67

This is to be interpreted that there were thirty-six members in both groups and the rate in seconds ranged from 165 to 15. The median for the experimental group was 35.71 and for the control group, 27. This is a difference of 8.71 seconds in favor of the control group.

Table V gives a frequency distribution of reading error scores for both the experimental and control group. These scores are averaged for both parts of the test.

TABLE V

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ACCORDING TO READING ERROR SCORES

Errors	Experimental Group Frequency	Control Group Frequency
18	1	
13	1	
9	0	
8	2	
7	0	1
6	2	1
5	3	2
4	9	3
3	1	3
2	7	10
1	10	13
0	0	3
	N—36	N—36
	Median—4	Median—2.2
	Q_1—.9	Q_1—1.46
	Q_3—5	Q_3—3.33
	Q—2.05	Q—.94

This table is to be read that there were thirty-six pupils in both groups. The errors ranged all the way from none to eighteen, with the median number for the experimental group four, and for the control group 2.2. This is a difference of 1.8 errors in favor of the control group.

Table VI shows the correlation between a pupil's rank in speech and his reading rate for the experimental group. The rank in speech was determined by the speech teacher on the scores from the speech test.

Table VII gives the correlation between a pupil's rank in speech and his errors in reading. The rank in speech was determined by the speech teacher on the basis of scores from the speech test.

TABLE VI

CORRELATION BETWEEN RANK IN SPEECH ABILITY AND READING RATE FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO READING RATE

Reading Rate	Rank in Speech 1	22	20	18	16	14	12	10	8	6	4	2	F	D	fd	FD²	XY
165	1												1	23	23	529	—161
105		1											2	11	22	484	—110
90												1	1	8	8	64	24
75				1									1	5	5	25	—25
65						1							1	3	3	9	9
60	1									1			2	2	4	8	—13
50				1				1		1			3				
45							1				1		2	—1	—2	2	0
40														—2			
35	1						1			4	1		7	—3	—21	63	9
30	1			1				1	1	3	1		8	—4	—32	128	28
25	1	1										1	3	—5	—15	75	50
20									1	2	1		4	—6	—24	144	—24
15												1	1	—7	—7	49	—21
f	5	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	11	4	3	36			—101	1580	—234
d	—7	—6	—5	—4	—3	—2	—1	0	1	2	3						
fd	—35	—12	—15	—4	—3	—4	—2		11	8	9						
												28					
fd^2	245	72	75	16	9	8	2		11	16	27						
												481					

$$r = \frac{234}{36} - 1.30$$

$$r = \frac{(3.42)(6.39)}{.36 \pm .0992}$$

cx = 1.30
cy = 1.0
tx = 3.42
r = .36 ± .0992
ty = 6.39

cx = 1.30
cy = —1
tx = 3.42
ty = 6.39

This is to be read that the correlation between a pupil's rank in speech and his reading rate on the test was .36 ± .0992.

TABLE VII

CORRELATION BETWEEN RANK IN SPEECH AND THE NUMBER OF READING ERRORS MADE BY THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF READING ERRORS

Number of Reading Errors	Rank in Speech: 18	13	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	F	D	fd	FD²	XY
2								1	1		1	3	4	12	48	16
4						1	1			1	1	4	3	12	36	9
6				1			1	3		2	4	11	2	22	44	22
8								2				2	1	2	2	
														48		
10				1						1		2				
12										2		2	—1	—2	2	—4
14											1	1	—2	—2	4	—6
16											1	2	—3	—6	18	33
18								1		1		2	—4	—8	32	—8
20								1			1	2	—5	—10	50	—15
22		1				1	1	1			1	5	—6	—30	180	48
f	1	1		2		2	3	9	1	7	10	36		—68	416	95
d	—14	—9	—5	—4	—3	—2	—1		1	2	3					
fd	—14	—9		—8		—4	—3		1	14	30					
							—38				45					
fd²	196	81	32			8	3	1	1	28	90					
											439					

$$r = \frac{95}{36} - .10$$

$$r = \frac{(3.47)(3.36)}{.20 \pm .1094}$$

cx = .19
cy = .56
tx = 3.47
ty = 3.36
r = .20 ± .1094

cx = .19
cy = .56
tx = 3.47
ty = 3.36

This table is to be read that the correlation between a pupil's rank in speech and the number of errors he makes in reading is .20 ± .1094.

SUMMARY

This study was made of 983 senior second grade pupils in the public schools of Birmingham, Alabama, in order to determine the influence of speech defects on reading achievement. It was also desired to determine what is the most common defect among pupils of this grade, and whether the majority of speech defects among second grade pupils is the result of habit or malformation.

A group of thirty-six matched pairs, one child having a speech defect and one having normal speech, was the subject of the study. The median I.Q. for the control group was 91, and that for the experimental group was 92.8, giving a difference of 1.8 in favor of the experimental group. The median C.A. for both groups was 7:8.

The Gray Standardized Oral Reading Check Test, Set I, Numbers 1 and 2, was given to both groups. This test provides for scoring on both rate and errors.

A comparison of the scores of both groups showed a difference of 8.71 in the reading rates, in favor of the control group. The median reading rate of the control group for a given page was 27 seconds, while that of the experimental group was 35.71 seconds. In reading errors, the control group made 2.2 errors to a given page, and the experimental group made 4 errors, making a difference of 1.8 in favor of the control group. A correlation was worked out between rank in speech and reading rate and error scores. The correlation between rank in speech and reading rate was found to be .36 and .0992, while the correlation between rank in speech and reading errors was .20 and .1094.

The most prevalent type of speech defect was substitution of sounds, occurring in 19 cases out of 49. Only two cases of these substitutions were the result of malformation. Other defects in the order of their frequency were: lisping, individual characteristics of voice, stuttering, foreign dialect, and rapid speech.

From these data it is evident that speech deficiency is a handicap in oral reading. While there is little relation between reading rate and reading error and the severity of a speech defect, as the negligible correlations in Tables VI and VII show, a speech defect is a retarding factor in oral reading. This study showed that it takes a child with a speech defect, on the average, 8.71 seconds longer to read orally a given passage than it takes a child with normal speech. This is despite the fact that the pupils with defective speech had an average intelligence rating of 1.8 points higher than the pupils with normal

speech, and the chronological ages, on the average, were identical.

In reading errors, the speech defective group, in spite of their higher intelligence, made 1.8 more errors to a given page than did the pupils with normal speech. Since the I.Q.'s, C.A.'s and years in school were comparable for both groups, and in view of the lower scores on both parts of the test, one is inclined to feel that speech defects do influence adversely a pupil's reading achievement.

A study of the types of speech defects found in these senior second grades reveals further interesting facts. Out of the 36 children with speech defects, only four had jaw or palate malformations, yet 19 of the pupils substituted one sound for another. What was the cause of the substitution by the other 15? Five of them came from homes where a foreign language handicap was present; however, it was found that these pupils could give the sounds correctly when they were urged to do so. This was also true of the other ten pupils who substituted sounds. There was no other evident cause for their substitutions than carelessness, or lack of having their attention called to these errors.

The same is also true of the 8 pupils who lisped. Constant supervision both at home and at school, it would seem, could overcome most of these faulty habits. The other defects, such as nasality, hoarseness and high or rasping voice, could be improved by attention to certain physical conditions such as poor teeth, diseased tonsils, adenoids, and sinuses.

It appears that since reading achievement, which is the academic goal of the primary grades, is affected by speech defects, and since the school has the child for such a large part of the day, the school as an organization should do something about this problem.

There seems to be a need for at least one expert diagnostician to a school system, if a clinic cannot be set up. This diagnostician could examine the pupils, make recommendations for caring for remedial defects such as poor teeth, diseased tonsils and sinuses, and then give both parents and classroom teachers instructions in corrective methods for the defective pupils.

It would seem from observation that pupils, no matter how much they are drilled to say *the* instead of *de*, will slip back into saying *de* if not watched. Thus it appears that thirty minutes twice a week with a speech correction specialist does not accomplish all that is necessary. The classroom teacher who is with the child every day has by far a greater opportunity to help the child. Yet how many classroom teach-

ers know even the rudiments of speech correction? The education of classroom teachers in the identification of speech defects and in simple corrective methods seems vital.

Proper training at school, however, demands help from the home to be effective. When a child leaves school he spends the afternoon and night in his home environment, where he is likely to be allowed to slip back into his faulty habits. Thus it seems that parent education is a necessity to prevent lisping or sound substitution on the grounds of "cuteness" or prolonging baby days. The Parent Teacher Association, through its programs, study groups and projects has an excellent opportunity to stress this important and long neglected phase of education.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from this study are fourfold. First, it is evident from this study that speech defects are a definite handicap in oral reading in the second grade, both in reading and in the number of errors made.

Second, this study shows that the majority of speech defects among second grade pupils of average intelligence and chronological age are due to faulty habits and could be overcome in time, with proper supervision and corrective methods, both at home and at school.

Third, it would seem that an expert speech diagnostician, or a speech clinic, would be an asset to any system. There is also recognized a need for training classroom teachers in the recognition of speech defects, and in the administering of simple corrective measures.

Fourth, the school needs the help of the home in overcoming speech defects in a child, and parent education is the means to this end. Parent education in the field of defective speech should be a part of every speech corrective program.

A REVIEW OF RESEARCH IN AUDIENCE REACTION

WILLIAM A. D. MILLSON
John Carroll University

PART II: MISCONCEPTIONS OF THE FUNCTION OF THE WOODWARD BALLOT AND OF THE FORMULAE

IN PART I of this article, we have discussed audience reaction research from the positive point of view as a step-by-step explanation of the theory, uses and limitations of the Woodward shift-of-opinion ballot in audience reaction research. It may be that this is all that is necessary to achieve our purpose of providing an adequate background of research information for the general speech teacher.

Yet direct positive exposition of experimental methods and techniques does not always serve as a complete explanation. There are ramifications and implications which cannot be clear until we examine fallacies and errors in using the technique.

As we should expect, where new techniques are introduced, there must be an initial period of confusion and mistake as to their values and limitations. Out of such misconceptions arise many apparently "unsurmountable" objections to the Woodward ballot and its formulae. In order to deal with this problem directly, we have listed and analyzed the outstanding objections to the ballot and the formulae as they have appeared in print in the last five years. It is our hope that by further clarifying specific misconceptions in use of the ballot and its formulae, we can avoid the danger that audience reaction research will needlessly suffer.

The substantial value of such an analysis may be indicated in a hasty review of the items revealed. The most frequent errors have appeared in discussions of the following subjects: the significance of "invalid" voting; the meaning of Rb; factors in speech effectiveness; completeness of opinion categories; the training of students by objective scoring; the statistical assumptions of the formulae; re-alignment of attitude; recording weakening of opinion; separate identity of Rs and Rb; psychological bases for Rb; meaning of change of opinion and of bias; significance of shift of opinion by the originally Undecided; meaning of zero Rb_3; scoring shift from Undecided; the relative importance of Rs and Rb; the significance of the size of the Unchanged opinion group; mathematics of research.

It is a varied and suggestive list, not yet exhausted in our preliminary analysis of Part I. We shall examine each in detail to clarify research problems.

Invalid Voting

A. First, there is the problem of "invalid voting."

For all experimental work with the Woodward Shift-of-Opinion Ballot, there must be common standards for tabulating and separating ballots. Ballots which are marked before the discussion, but not after, or *vice versa,* can record no shift of opinion and are not valid for counting. Ballots which record in two positions before, or after, the discussion are not valid for counting. This last rule has an exception: ballots which record (after the discussion) two places, one "Affirmative," as well as one "More Strongly Affirmative," are considered to be marked "More Strongly Affirmative." The reverse situation would be "More Strongly Negative." Possible error in such counting cancels out in each direction.

Similarly, where an original Undecided or an original Negative shifts finally to "More Strongly Affirmative," or an original Affirmative to "More Strongly Negative," we have a logical impossibility; if we were testing the reasoning of an audience, we should not permit it to count as valid. But for recording shift of opinion, it is a valid shift in the direction of Affirmative or Negative, and we tabulate it as such.

This is the standard procedure in tabulating shifts of opinion in the standard ballot for purposes of research.

But, from time to time, we have had evidence that the term "valid" ballot is not familiar to all teachers of speech. The most recent example occurred in the February issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, where "valid" was taken to mean those who did not vote "After the Discussion."

As a result of this misconception, the following question was asked: in Woodward's figures, did the 55% of the members of the audience who did not return "valid" ballots "walk out because they were not interested"?[1] The answer is, "No," from one who supervised the voting for most of the audiences used in the Woodward study. Included in the "invalid" group are many who came in after the discussion began. Of course, many members of the average public audience do leave before the conclusion of an hour and a half of

[1] E. H. Henrikson, "The Audience Reaction Ballot; An Evaluation," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, Vol. XXIX (Feb., 1938), p. 155.

speaking. But the invalid 55% includes a much larger proportion of those whose ballots were not usable because they did not vote validly, as Woodward clearly indicates. "Invalid" voting refers to such errors as failing to check opinion in both positions before and after discussion, or checking more than one exclusive final category. Invalid voting should be carefully isolated for experimental work. This 55% may be a sound reason for simplifying the form of the ballot, and rejecting more complicated forms for the general audience, but it does not imply that the "audience walked out because they were not interested." Nor is there "a strong suggestion in these facts that the class situation is not ever completely and only at times even approximately an actual audience, just as in the vital life situation." [2]

Actual experimental work by both Monroe and Millson tends to indicate a close parallel between student opinion reactions and those of the general audience in experimental work with the audience. We can all agree that there are differences between the classroom and the life situation, but to what extent these differences operate should be a matter of experiment, not of argument.

Measuring Speech Effectiveness with Individual Auditors

B. "The ballot makes no pretense at measuring anything except effectiveness. Effectiveness is not a simple mathematical concept. Effectiveness is a broad concept which changes for every speaking situation and is dependent on the special speaking situation involved." [3]

The writer, to show instances in which the ballot does not reveal speech effectiveness, then cites the following specific cases:

a. The jury decision, being hung by one person.

b. The conversion to belief of one person who has the most money to contribute to a given cause.

c. The conversion to belief of the one person who has the greatest potential ability to persuade others (such as a "Florence Nightingale").

The point is well taken as applying to any measure of the speaker's effectiveness with individuals, but it does not apply here in militating against the ballot, since the ballot can only be used in audiences of thirty [4] or more (so that it does not apply to the jury

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 55.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 57.

[4] Alan Monroe, "The Reliability and Validity of the Shift-of-Opinion Ballot," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, Vol. XXIII. (Dec., 1937), p. 585.

situation) and since the Millson formulae reflect only group effects and net audience reaction.[5] The effectiveness of a speaker with the group as an audience is revealed, but not the chance reactions of powerful individuals in the group.

Obviously, a speaker may on some special occasion win individuals to his cause, though the R_s and R_b are not very high, because the R_s and R_b necessarily deal with the average of all individual scores. The fallacy of the writer is the old fallacy of division, an assumption that the average does or should reveal individual reactions. That is too much to expect from any statistical measure. The formulae measure mass reactions. In using mass measures for experiment, we vary the speaking style and then measure change in general reactions to changes in speech mode. It is hoped that the data thus obtained may reveal experimentally the true bases of speech effectiveness.

Opinion Categories Inadequate

C. "The formula may conceal as high as 26% of audience response, because it takes no cognizance of the fact that opinion may be weakened."[6] In the first place, this should not say that the *formula* "conceals;" it means that the *ballot* conceals. The formulae are merely statistical measures.

But does the ballot conceal "26% of audience response"? Certainly not, as reference to Henrikson's data as reported indicates: the "average of 3,239 paired judgments" (with a new form of ballot), yields only 6 percent of audience response[7] instead of 26% as quoted. This means only 3% in either direction, canceling out in the final data, and not affecting the net results.

Further, we cannot conclude from this report any fact about the value and use of the Woodward ballot nor of the Millson formulae, since Henrikson did not set up a controlled situation to check the comparison between the standard Woodward ballot and the proposed new form. The formula can "conceal" nothing, since it is the mere treatment of data. The "26%" cited on p. 55 for audience response is apparently the "26%" cited on p. 51 for the total number of speeches in which 10% of the listeners had opinions weakened. To confuse the stimuli with the responses may be an unfortunate misuse

[5] Wm. A. D. Millson, 1932, 1936.
[6] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 55.
[7] *Ibid.*, p. 51.

of data, but the procedure used indicates the need of an experiment with different types of speeches, speech deliveries, and speech forms. It is therefore useful to have this report.

Our experimental attack, however, must be made with standardized forms and controlled conditions. Since the standardized Woodward ballot and the test Millson formulae are usable for both debate and for discussion by single speakers, we shall need to devise new formulae for new ballot forms if we are to compare effects of the ballot form upon audience and student reactions. It is not enough to "discard" for theoretical reasons a standard form of ballot (already proved sound by actual experiment), then to devise another form with different opinion categories and to ballot students; we must experiment with the new form and with new formulae for measuring results. The new formulae must be validated and tested for reliability in the same way that Monroe tested the Woodward ballot and the Millson formulae; and the formula for scoring and treating results must be worked out and validated in the same way for new forms of ballot to be used for experiment.

Scoring of Students by R_s Values: Not Trained in Speech

D. The student should not be encouraged to make the best possible score by the objective ballot—he should be taught "basic principles of speaking." Otherwise he will make the same type of speech; and he should be taught to improve his weaknesses just as an expert in one type of swimming stroke should be taught to better the strokes in which he is less efficient; so runs the argument.[8] Here again is a field for experiment, rather than argument. The only experiment on this question is that of Monroe, and his tentative conclusion[9] is as follows:

> The training of speakers in public-speaking classes should be similarly modified. With the exception of attempting to eliminate the noticeably irritating defects, *less attention* should be *paid to the specific weaknesses of the student speaker, and more* to strengthening of his points of effectiveness and to *improving* the *general impressiveness* of his presentation and the substantiality of his remarks.

Monroe, therefore, after experiment, denies that public speaking training is like training for swimming, if we mean by that analogy the strengthening of weak style and mode. Here, too, is a new fruitful

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 56–57.

[9] Monroe, *op. cit.*, Bulletin of Purdue University, p. 77.

field for experiment of great practical value to all teachers of speech, likely to revolutionize the speech textbook field if once established by other similar experiments. It is not a field for theory and argument.

Are Assumptions Bad?

E. "In the use of his formulae, Millson makes several assumptions, many of which are open to question." [10]

Ah, yes. The experimenter makes a statistical assumption, and all embattled debaters are much outraged. Unfortunately, that is the only basis for any experimental work. Let our friends read L. L. Thurstone, and K. J. Chave, *The Measurement of Attitude,* (Univ. of Chicago Press, 1929). If Thurstone were forbidden to make open assumptions, there would be no attitude scale (a statistical measure) and no study of attitude. We who want to experiment do make necessary assumptions, not only many, but all, admittedly open to question; we devise necessary formulae for treating data, and then we proceed to experiment. Why can we do that? The answer is obvious. We know that these assumptions, if in error, are constant errors and cannot affect the meaning of our data. If sometimes we have the time and good luck to isolate error in our temporary assumptions, we correct our data only to find that all parts are equally affected and the tentative conclusions remain the same.

Let us remember then, that statistical assumptions must be made before the results of our experimental work can be measured; that there may be error in these assumptions, and sometimes the data must be adjusted to allow for this error. But meanwhile, let us remember also that even with the statistical error, the data is still valid data, and that assumptions do not necessarily invalidate the experiment.

Curiously, none of the so-called "assumptions" pointed out were really statistical assumptions of the formulae; and as we have indicated, the attack in each case grew out of a misconception of the purpose of the measurement by indexes.[11]

Re-Aligning Attitude After Discussion

F. "The ballot in no way indicates whether the speech effects permanent re-alignment of opinion; this is an unproved assump-

[10] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

[11] See Part I.

tion." [12] Since permanent re-alignment means shift in attitude, this is safe ground to take, for the "assumption" was never made; rather did the inference come as a seeming suggestion from data obtained after experiment. Yet the statement does raise two interesting questions:

a. Does the ballot measure an actual shift of attitude?

b. Is this a permanent shift of attitude?

Again, two subjects for experiment. As to the first, Monroe reports[13] after comparing the ballot data to results with the Thomas attitude scale:

> 4. As a measure of effectiveness of a speech in terms of shift of opinion the Woodward ballot is more valid than the rating scale, a fact indicated by its higher correlation with the Thomas Scale, which was used as a criterion. (The correlation r's were: .77 and .47 for the Woodward ballot and the rating scale respectively.)
>
> 6. In the light of these conclusions the Woodward ballot is the best single device for evaluating the effectiveness of speeches in terms of changes of opinion produced by them.

Evidently, shift of opinion indicated by the ballot is also a shift of attitude or bias.

But, we ask, does the final position on the ballot represent a relatively stable change of attitude? Of this we cannot yet be sure, but we do know that for groups over 30, the expressed opinion represents underlying attitude[14] and bias. What then is the subjective error and the error of intervention between expressed opinion and attitude? If we can determine this error, we can arrive at an exact evaluation in group study of the final bias of the group. Then the R_b formula will apply, to indicate the gain or loss in net bias of a group; and the R_b will indicate a permanent re-alignment of opinion. The identity error operates in both directions, toward Affirmative or Negative, and cancels out in the data for large groups, so that even now we may experiment to ascertain the relations of R_s and R_b. The ballot, then, with the R_b formula can give a tentative picture of the probable realignment of opinion after discussion.

Recording the Weakening of Opinion

G. "Woodward's ballot takes no account of the weakening of opinion." [15]

[12] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 58.
[13] Monroe, Purdue Bulletin, p. 24.
[14] *Ibid.*, pp. 13, 15; Q.J.S., p. 585.
[15] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

Not true, since opinion can and does shift through two weaker positions, to Undecided and to the reverse opinion. The reasons for not making finer categories of weakness have been stated in our analysis of the basis for discussion of the standard form of the Woodward ballot. Part I of this study.

R_s Index Compared to R_b Index

H. "The idea that the two values for bias and opinion shift are separate and distinct is an assumption." [16]

Not so. Actual analyses of thousands of ballots, and experience with hundreds of audiences indicate that the R_s and R_b index scores are rarely the same for the same audience. What this means is another subject for experiment, but by definition of the terms[17] and by the statistical formation[18] of the formulae for R_s and R_b they measure different distinct values in terms of different absolute standards. Roughly, R_s measures the total net shift of opinion in two directions; R_b reflects the status of opinion in two categories.

Psychological Differences for R_s and R_b

I. "That the two types of change obey different psychological laws is a further assumption." [19]

The only assumption involved is that the reader will have some familiarity with the literature of experimental psychology. No experimental psychologist will "discuss" the "laws of persuasion" in a report of experimental work. A mass of psychological data is available in the experimental literature relative to the difference between "bias" (attitude) change and "opinion" change. The statement is a psychological truism, rather than an assumption.

Change of Bias as Extreme Change of Opinion

J. "Every change of bias is also a change of opinion, and actually represents only an extreme type of opinion change." [20]

Not so; and not pertinent, since our task is just the reverse; i.e., to demonstrate that every change of opinion (which we can record) is also a change of bias (which we cannot record independently).

[16] *Loc. cit.*
[17] Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 13.
[18] Millson, QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH; 1932, 1936.
[19] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 58.
[20] *Ibid.*, p. 59.

Change of bias is never "extreme" opinion change—it is an essentially different process. Here again is a good field for experiment. How closely allied are bias and opinion? What is the exact relation between attitude and opinion? How far must bias move in R_b to change R_b values? We do not know; but we do know that there may be a complete change of bias, with no change of opinion. This is so because of the identity error, which still needs to be determined. Only in general averages with groups and with net group measures such as R_b, do we have reasonable assurance that the recorded opinion reflects the more stable net bias of the audience.

Analogy to Show Identity of R_s and R_b

K. To show the supposed identity of R_s and R_b we are given this analogy. The R_s is compared to cutting off the tops of trees and counting stumps; the R_b is compared to cutting off the same trees, lower down, and counting the same stumps plus the shorter trees that escaped the first cutting; these two cuttings are not done "according to different physical laws," so R_s and R_b need not obey different psychological laws; so runs the argument.[21] How dangerous is this analogy and how feeble a method of testing a theory, experimentally!

First, R_b scores are never constantly less or more than R_s scores; there is no constant relation of more or less as in the two cutting of trees, though R_b values are usually less numerically than the R_s values. For the tree cutting, there is always a relation of more and less for first and second cuttings.

Apparently, the writer does not understand what R_b and R_s measure. Each of these measures is related to a zero point; but for R_s the zero point signifies equal conditions of influence toward *shift* of opinion, while with R_b the zero point signifies equal conditions of influence toward *stable attitude* or bias. R_s and R_b measure different psychological factors and values.

The two sets of trees, if any, are different kinds of trees. In one case we measure in which of two directions the trees move in response to some force, let us say, the wind; in the other instance, we measure the extent in which two groups of trees remain standing after, let us say, a tornado has subjected the trees to forces in both directions. The analogy is still imperfect, since the trees can't move their stumps (bias) and become replanted; and the tree-tops usually

[21] *Ibid., loc. cit.*

won't stay in the position to which they are bent (opinion). But it serves to show what you can do with a figurative analogy if you really try.

R_s vs. R_b in Relative Importance

L. "One may ask again if this distinction (between R_s and R_b) necessarily means . . . that one process is more important than the other." [22]

Again, a confusion of meaning. The R_s and R_b are two separate statistical measures, reflecting two different psychological factors: one, we call opinion; another, we label as bias. Psychologically, we can state that the bias factor is more deep-seated, more stable, more complex, less subject to environmental influence, involving more inter-relations with lesser psychological states. Opinion is a reflection of bias and more likely to shift in relation to a specific proposition on a given subject. As the proposition becomes more general, opinion on it is likely to coincide more nearly with bias on the general subject, to which the proposition relates.

In the psychological sense that opinions are more easily changed than are attitudes or biases, we can say that the process of changing bias is a more difficult and hence a more important change than changing bias. Hence, also, can we say the two processes obey different psychological laws and represent separate and distinct values. But none of this is concluded from the basis of the two formulae nor the data produced.

Reflecting Size of Unchanged in R_s and R_b

M. "Most of the time those who oppose a certain type of action have achieved their purpose very well if they cause the persons concerned to remain uncertain." [23]

True enough for individual reaction, but irrelevant to experimental work. Yet it suggests the question: how is the number of Unchanged opinion reflected in R_s or R_b? As between equal audiences, if there is a larger number of Unchanged, there is a lower net shift $(A - Ns)$, and therefore a lower $R_s \frac{(As - Ns)}{N}$, the number in the audience being constant. Similarly, there is a different R_{b3} value, and less difference between R_{b1} and R_{b2}; the Affirmative Bias relations to Negative Bias is more constant before and after a discussion, where there is a larger number of voters unchanged.

[22] *Ibid.*

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 58.

Value of Analysis of Opinion Changes in Categories

Nevertheless, in each of his experimental studies, Millson summarizes opinion changes for each category of original opinion in relation to possible shift of opinion: total percent Unchanged; total per cent Strengthened; total percent Reversing Opinion; percent Original Affirmative Strengthened; percent Original Undecided Unchanged; percent Original Negative Unchanged; percent Affirmative Reversing; percent Negative Reversing; percent Undecided to Affirmative; percent Undecided to Negative; percent Changing Opinion during Discussion; percent Changing Opinion during Rebuttal.

We earnestly hope that further experiment will be made to ascertain laws which govern the shift of specific categories of opinion and the relations between various types of opinion shift. These specific relations should have value for detailed studies under controlled conditions. By such experiment, we may some day determine the probable relation between the shift of opinion in an audience and the number of unchanged opinions.

Millson's Mathematical Errors

N. The objection that "results obtained by Millson are difficult to evaluate because of the obscurity of the mathematics on which they are based" [24] is due to an unfortunate misunderstanding of Millson's formulae.

Table I (cited as being published in 1936) was published in 1932 as one of seven tables. The totals at the foot of all the columns for that one table are incorrect, much to Millson's horror and astonishment. Henrikson kindly corrects the addition, but draws an unkind conclusion: he failed to note that none of the data, or "results," or "conclusions" of the article depend on the gross totals at the foot of Table I. The fact, the whole point of the research study and the portent of the six other statistical tables following was to show the importance of specific relations of opinion categories for experimental purposes.

Yet unimportant as the totals of Table I are, they should be corrected as Henrikson has done. His conclusion that this makes the results "difficult to evaluate" is unwarranted.

The Meaning of R_b

O. "Unfortunately for the clarity of his discussion, Millson uses the term R_b to indicate two obviously different things." [25] With

[24] *Ibid.*, p. 53.
[25] *Ibid.*, p. 54.

more justice, the writer might have said "three different things," since there are three R_b's: R_{b1}, before discussion; R_{b2}, after discussion; and R_{b3} $(R_{b1} - R_{b2})$—*the net bias measure.* The writer may have been misled by Millson's early use of "R" as "index of audience reaction as a result of the speech." [26] However, this term was discarded by Millson[27] in the next publication (1936) for the more exact terms of R_s or Reaction Shift (R in effect), and the additional term of R_b, or Reaction Bias, reflected in audience opinion recorded on the ballot. Yet R_b as such has only one meaning—net reaction bias as expressed in terms of an absolute statistical standard. Since we take R_b values twice, before and after the discussion, and then a net R_b, there are three R_b's and there is no lack of clarity, unless in the mind of the observer.

Meaning of Zero R_{b3}

P. To illustrate the "defect" of considering shift from Undecided as shift of bias, we are given an example of a shift of Undecided Opinion such that R_{b1} and R_{b2} become equal and R_{b3} has the value of zero. This is taken to mean "that those who moved from Undecided to Affirmative really had a Negative bias and that those who moved from Undecided to Negative really had an Affirmative bias." [28]

Here is yet another unfortunate misconception of the nature of the R_s and R_b formulae. A shift in opinion from Undecided to definite position is recorded as one shift of opinion, and the final position is recorded as a Bias, representing two entirely different values, in terms of two entirely different absolute standards, and measured as such by two entirely different formulae. Neutrals either have a nullifying conflict in biases or no interest or bias; they acquire a bias before change of opinion. Consequently this is not "contrary to Millson's first contention that a change from Undecided is to be considered as merely a change of opinion." [29] Millson made no such contention, first or last. Shift from Undecided to a definite opinion is both a shift of opinion and a change of bias, like other categorical changes of opinion.

Zero R_{b3}: Movement of Undecided Cancels Movement of Affirmatives or Negatives

Q. Again, we are given[29] an example of *six Negatives that change* their original bias to Affirmative (while no Affirmatives change

[26] Millson (1932), pp. 621–637.
[27] Millson (1936), p. 544.
[28] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 60.
[29] *Ibid., loc. cit.*

bias) so that the R_{b3} formula shows *no change of bias*—due to movement of six neutrals to Negative. Here, says Henrikson, "either the Undecided group had a concealed bias for the position, to which they finally turned, or the Undecided had a bias toward the opposite position. The ballot does not indicate whether this is true. Hence the whole concept of the difference between shift of audience opinion and a shift of audience bias—a difference assumed to be based on different psychological laws—is subject to question." [29]

Subject, rather, to experiment under controlled conditions to determine the difference between the original Undecided shift in opinion and shift of opinion from a definite position. Here again is indicated a misconception of the function of R_s and R_b. R_b reflects net bias, not individual bias.

Scoring Shift from Undecided

Neutrals who shift to a definite opinion, shift an opinion, and also a bias. R_b measures this shift in bias as against the original net bias.

It would be stronger ground to point out the fact that the original neutrals are not counted for the R_b before the discussion, but are counted after the discussion. Yet this fact does not affect the result in comparing the original R_b with the final R_b.

If neutrals were figured in the first R_b, we would divide them equally so that we would merely add a constant and equal number to each side of the equation.

It would be even more pertinent to object that a complete reversal of opinion involves a greater shift of Bias than shift from Undecided to Opinion; yet each is given the same value of 1. The basis for this scoring of reaction as a unitary complete reaction independent of scale steps was explained in the Part I discussion of scoring. It is true that the scoring of Undecided Shifts may be in error; possibly, to move from $+1$ to -1 or from -1 to $+1$ is a greater effect than to move from 0 to ± 1. This would be true if the Affirmative, Negative, and Undecided categories were at equidistant steps on a predetermined scale of opinion; but, as both Monroe[30] and Millson[31] have pointed out: "The individual auditor records only a qualitative shift: the only quantitative index of the effectiveness of a speech is the proportion of auditors recording such a shift." In absence of contrary

[30] Monroe, Purdue Bull., p. 15.
[31] Millson (1932).

evidence, we score every shift of opinion as of equal value. And so, if six Negatives reverse bias to Affirmative and no Affirmatives change over, but six Undecided voters turn to Negative bias, the formula then reflects the *net result* of change of bias and we do get a zero R_b. This is quite natural and consistent, and clear to anyone who understands the use of the R_b formula; R_b reflects net change of bias, including change of Undecided.

Effect on Student of Measurement in Classroom

R. From a questionnaire survey of 52 students of speech at the University of Montana as to the effect of the use of a non-standard ballot on the speaker's preparation and delivery of the speech, and on each class member as an auditor, Henrikson concluded:

> 3. The ballot may have a certain desirable effect in making students more careful in preparation of their speeches, more attentive in listening to speeches, and the like. It may have certain undesirable effects in making the speaker tense and the audience hyper-critical. It may make the speaker an audience-server, may even, as the best speaker in one class admitted—"make him afraid to discuss his subject honestly!" [32]

This is the most useful part of the Henrikson discussion, since it suggests the need of controlled experiment to determine the effect on students of the use of the ballot. Millson suggested (1936) the use of the standard ballot and formulae with classes, but he never reported an experimental study with the classroom audience, relative to the effect on learning, and has never made any. Monroe makes a distinct contribution in point in his Purdue study,[33] but much more remains to be done to establish the effect of objective measures on the learning process.

Uncontrolled questionnaire studies with no attempt to set up a standardized scale are relatively futile as a means of affording valid data.

The Comparison of Opinion Factor

S. Does the comparison factor—i.e., the recall of the first opinion by the auditor—invalidate the final judgment?

This theoretical question has been answered by Monroe, already cited as attacking the problem of validity and reliability of the ballot. But the comparison factor as such is a good problem for experiment,

[32] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 61.
[33] Monroe, Purdue Bulletin, 76–78.

since the possible influence of the first recording will operate with any ballot involving change of opinion. What then is the effect of making a first judgment? To find out, and to measure the effect on a second judgment, we can only experiment.

Henrikson[34] states "There is no way of knowing how much influence this extra speech factor has." How different the attitude of the psychologist who would try to isolate that factor! And why is "there no way"? Let us isolate variable factors, and experiment until we know.

Yet one may ask: will it not invalidate our data, since it is an operating error that we can not now isolate? Not at all—as already explained, the error operates equally in two directions, to Affirmative and to Negative; and, with large groups, the error cancels out.

Experiment in the Life Situation

T. Is this recording of opinion a violation of the concept of a "vital life situation," as the basis of experiment? Certainly it is. The initial fact of recording an opinion varies from the life situation, where balloting is not usually done, and where the "speaker draws the listener away from the old view."[35] The auditor may recall the initial opinion and, by that recall, may be influenced in recording a change of opinion.

This recording factor must in some measure affect the data obtained. This, we ourselves have often pointed out, many times, urging more experiment to determine the exact effect of the factor of balloting on opinion change. This variation from life is to be regretted; but since the factor is common to all experiments, this error too will cancel out, so far as it affects data and conclusions. This is a truism in psychological research and would not be mentioned here save for the evident confusion that may exist for teachers of speech who have had no opportunity for adequate training in experimental psychology. Such a recording-effect on opinion is inevitable in use of the ballot. Not only that, but the suggested ballot[36] of Henrikson itself involves an additional "comparison" not true of the life situation; i.e., self-analysis as to whether the belief is "mild, moderate, or intense." Here, too, we must experiment to ascertain the effect of this additional subjective "comparison" factor. And here too we must

[34] Henrikson, *op. cit.*, p. 52.
[35] *Loc. cit.*
[36] *Op. cit.*, 50.

ask: What is the effect on the subject of asking him to decide whether his opinion is slightly weakened, though not neutral? Luckily for experimental use, such error is constant and cancels out.

Consequently, while the problem exists to isolate the recording-recall factor, it is a constant error and it cannot affect results of the Woodward ballot.

Recording Shift from Undecided as Shift of Bias

U. There is "no apparent certainty" as to what is to be done with the "Undecided" group. Shall a shift from "Undecided" to Bias be called a "shift of bias"?[37] The writer is apparently confused by Millson's reference to the shift of opinion from Undecided as being "confined to that group alone." He thought Millson meant that the Undecided were not subject to Bias. The meaning is that the original Undecided group moves differently in reaction—in percentage movement to Affirmative or to Negative—from original decided groups.

This has no relation to the question of whether shift from Undecided is a shift of bias. Certainly a shift from Undecided is a shift in bias, if expressed opinion reflects a bias in the net group figures. "Undecided" can represent two elements, one of which is Bias; i.e., a bias evenly divided in two opposing directions; or it may represent utter lack of bias due to ignorance or lack of interest in the subject. Therefore, to turn to an opinion from Undecided must indicate a shift in bias in a definite direction. There is no "uncertainty" now existing as to how to treat the Uncertain group, unless the uncertainty lies in the mind of the observer.

Experimental Research with Undergraduate Student Subjects

V. Can there be controlled research with this ballot or measurement of speeches by the Millson formulae in the classroom?

Monroe's Experimental Contribution

We have already cited research studies of Monroe. This is the only ballot research study reported, based solely on experimental work with undergraduates. The most recent extended discussion of the use of the ballot assumes[38] that Millson extended his audience research to the classroom in controlled experiment with students of speech as subjects; but Millson reports no such study. Millson's re-

[37] *Ibid.*, 59.
[38] *Ibid.*, 53 ff.

search (1932) was confined to the general audience. While that study was supplemented by a repetition of his experiments using undergraduate psychology students, none of Millson's conclusions are based on data derived from classroom student subjects. His research with the classroom audience was intended merely to suggest the new problem. In 1936, Millson did suggest the use of the ballot and the measurement formulae in the classroom in order to provide an objective judgment of speech effectiveness, supplementary to subjective judgments of the teacher. In 1938, Henrikson reports an application of this suggestion; but, on purely "theoretical" grounds, he "discards" the Woodward ballot as not containing sufficient opinion categories, and he raises several theoretical objections[39] to use of the Woodward ballot and formulae with students. This is the chief service of his article, since, by raising definite concrete objections to classroom use of the Woodward ballot—and very well-put objections—he emphasizes the need of fresh experiment along these lines. These objections are carefully detailed, and they should be just as carefully considered as problems to be attacked experimentally. Some of the questions raised—namely, the validity and reliability of the Woodward ballot in its standardized form, the validity of Millson formulae, the value of using the ballot for experiment with students, and the parallel between student situation and general audience situation—had already been attacked experimentally and solved by Monroe in his experimental studies reported in December, as cited previously. So far as this present discussion has clarified audience-reaction research, it will have disposed of all other objections based on mistaken concepts of the Woodward ballot and its uses.

Summary

An Evaluation of Objections to the Woodward Shift-of-Opinion Ballot, and of the Millson Formulae

1. Objections to the Standard Shift-of-Opinion ballot for use in experimental research with the general audience are based on misconceptions of the function of ballot for such use and upon misconceptions of the methods of scoring the ballot and statistical formulae for treating the data revealed.

2. Objections to the use of the Millson formulae (already reported by Monroe to be valid and reliable on the basis of standard

[39] *Ibid.*, 50 ff.

tests) also derive from misconceptions of the meaning, functions and values of the R_a and R_b formulae.

3. Objections to the use of the Woodward ballot and to the Millson formulae in the objective measurement of the effectiveness of student speeches are unsound so far as they are based on the supposed invalidity or unreliability of the ballot or formulae.

4. Objections to the use of the ballot in the classroom as a teaching device—so far as such objections are based upon the supposed effect on student learning—should be considered as hypotheses for experiment rather than bases for discarding a standard experimental device.

5. Objections to the use of the ballot for audience reaction experiment using undergraduate students as subjects are proved unsound by the experimental studies of Monroe.

All Such Objections Have Research Value

Finally, let us keep in mind the chief value of such objections for the research worker. An "objection" may point out an important assumption underlying a particular technique; or it may reveal an unknown or a disregarded variable factor, or a new constant error to which data must sometime be adjusted. Better still, an objection may reveal a new field for experiment. Such questions and objections are highly useful to the experimenter, even though they may have occurred to him before; the sad experience of so many experimental psychologists indicates how necessary it is that we be reminded constantly of possible errors and variable factors in our experiments.

Let us keep in mind too that at last the general teacher of speech has become so "research-minded" with regard to the audience psychology of his subject, that his theoretical analysis and his listing of objections and assumptions have actually stirred him to discuss and write about audience research methods and techniques. The research worker can now rejoice that in 1938, less than six years after it all began, the research idea in audience reaction is on the march in the field of speech.

Our chosen task to determine experimentally the fundamental bases of effective speech in terms of audience reaction is at last begun, and its importance is being recognized.

THE FORUM

To the Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

In a recent article *Objective Testing of Pronunciation at the College Level*[1] the author, Dr. Jean Brady Jones, set up the following standard:

> The words selected for any pronunciation test, written or oral, should be words concerning which there is no justifiable difference of opinion with reference to the correct pronunciation. . . . Words of which a variant pronunciation is approved by any good dictionary should be omitted. I have tried to eliminate such words from this one list.[2]

Appended was the test itself, containing 142 words together with markings to indicate their correct pronunciation.

As for the test itself, little need be said other than to point out that it fails to come up to the standard quoted. Of the 142 words, at least 29 have variants recognized by "good dictionaries."

Using, when possible, the same markings Dr. Jones employs,[3] I list the following alternatives to the "correct" pronunciations indicated in the test. After each is a letter designating the dictionary which recognizes the variant; thus *W* for *Webster's New International* (1937), *S* for the *New Standard* (1937), *K* for G. P. Krapp, *A Comprehensive Guide to Good English* (1927).

1. toward *K, W* (which incorrectly points out that it is British rather than American. The pronunciation with *w* is widespread among Americans who try to speak "correctly.")

2. often *W* (". . .until recently generally considered as more or less illiterate, is not uncommon among the educated in some sections. . .")

3. forehead *S, W* (as is frequently the case, both dictionaries fail to record the variant form in the word entry but indicate its existence by the symbol XIII [in the *New Standard*] or by 277, 66 or other paragraph references to the section on Pronunciation [*Webster's*]).

4. gibbering (h) *S* (which lists only this form with "hard" *g* [g]), *W, K*

5. barrage [ʒ] *K*

[1] THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXIV (February, 1938), 62–6.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 63.

[3] When the sound in question cannot thus be indicated, I use a phonetic symbol and enclose it in brackets.

6. vaudeville [ɔ] *W*
7. suite [u] *W*
8. alumn*ae* (i) *W* (See Pronunciation, ¶269, where this variant is clearly recognized, though no hint of this is given in the word entry).
9. *ch*autauqua (ch) *K*
10. artĕsian (z) *W*
11. luxury (gz) *K*, *S*, (ksh) *W*
12. exemplary (ks) *W*
13. gĕnealogy *W*, *S*
14. grătis *K*, *W*
15. dăta (ă) *K*, (ah, ä) [a] *W*, *K*
16. stătus *K*
17. amĕnities *W*
18. ápropos *W*
19. exquísite *K*, *W*
20. formidable *K* ("low colloquially often")
21. despicable *W* ("formerly, and still occasionally")
22. ádults *S*, *W*, *K*
23. deficit *W* (though the penultimate stress seems to be British)
24. énnui *W*, *K*
25. cóquetry *W*
26. áddress *W*, *K*
27. résources *W*, *K* ("low colloquially")
28. spéctator *W*
29. insane *W*[4]

But the purpose of this discussion is not to find fault with a single hastily contrived test; it is rather to raise the serious (though trite) question. Why do we continue to have pronunciation "tests" which insist that a certain pronunciation is "correct" and that variants, even though widely used among educated people, are incorrect? It must be due to one or more of the following factors: (1) the assumption that dictionaries do not disagree about pronunciation; (2) the failure to read the general discussion of pronunciation and to scrutinize carefully the comments in a particular word entry; (3) the assumption that dictionaries are infallible; and (4) the assumption that the first of two or more pronunciation variants recorded is "more correct" than the others.

As for the first, little comment is necessary. In addition to the testimony contained in the word list above showing how often one dictionary fails to record a variant that another recognizes, the dic-

[4] In addition to these variants the dictionaries ought to indicate the following: 1. *clique*, 2. *absurd* (z), 3. *prōpaganda*, 4. *combátants*, 5. *infámous*, 6. *grimace*, 7. *compárable*, 8. *peóny*, 9. *gondóla*, 10. *précédence*. All of these are widespread pronunciations among educated Americans.

tionaries themselves often take pains to emphasize the fact that they differ by printing separately a list (decidedly incomplete) of "disputed pronunciations," in which are indicated the variant forms of competing dictionaries. See *Webster's* and the *New Standard*.

The failure to read carefully what a dictionary has to say about pronunciation is lamentable. Professor Kenyon has provided a discussion of this subject (in *Webster's*) which, if read thoughtfully and *in toto*, would go far to correct the basic misconception which accounts for tests like this. Again, the careless reading of a word entry may cause one to overlook a recognized variant, which, though not printed in the entry, is nevertheless indicated by a reference to a paragraph of the Introduction. See *forehead*.

Any dictionary is fallible. As the ten words listed above show, widely used pronunciations fail to be recorded. Relatively uncommon pronunciations are, by implication, sometimes given preference: see *spectator, amenities*. The tendency to endow a dictionary with infallibility—an attribute which no good dictionary really claims—springs from the fact that the function of a dictionary is not always understood. A dictionary is a mere recorder, not an arbiter, of usage. "A pronunciation is not 'correct' because it may be found in a dictionary; rather it may (or should) be found in a dictionary because good usage has already determined that it is 'correct.'" [5] A dictionary entry should not lead one to refuse to credit his ears. The fact that many words are correctly pronounced in more than one way—no matter what a dictionary may or may not say—does not lead to linguistic anarchy. A distinguished student of our language, Professor Daniel Jones, goes a little too far, I believe, when he says: "As far as English speaking people themselves are concerned, I suggest that educational authorities should leave everyone to pronounce as he pleases, and that no attempt should be made to impose one particular form of speech upon anyone who prefers another form. Above all it appears to me important that *no person should ever disparage the pronunciation of another.*" [6] But this is certainly both better linguistics and better pedagogic counsel than the stupid and futile practice of trying to foist on students some arbitrary pronunciation which a most decidedly fallible dictionary happens to list first.

[5] Stuart Robertson, *The Development of Modern English* (1934), pp. 261-2. Incidentally, Professor Robertson devotes some twenty pages (243 ff.) to pointing out deficiencies of our dictionaries.

[6] *American Speech* (Oct., 1937), p. 208.

Finally, we turn to the misconception that the first recorded variant is therefore more correct—a notion of which dictionaries are mainly the cause. In *Webster's*[7] the reader is misled by the following, which is found in the "Explanatory Notes": "Alternative pronunciations are given whenever two or more well supported pronunciations are in use among educated speakers . . . there is usually a slight preponderance of evidence in favor of the first pronunciation, which may be regarded as the preferred form." Cautious as the last part of this statement is, it nevertheless conveys the impression that the first recorded variant is the better.

But elsewhere in the Introduction—unfortunately in that part which is rarely read by the average reader—this is directly contradicted: " . . . a pronunciation is correct when it is in actual use by a sufficient number of cultivated speakers . . . In cases of unsettled but nearly evenly divided usage, the alternative pronunciations are indicated." Surely this makes it clear that one variant is as "correct" as another. Again we are told: "In this Dictionary, as a rule, one accentuation is given, together with a reference (66) to this section. But the accentuation given in words of this sort may not be more 'correct' than the one not given: the two merely represent different uses of the word, both equally correct." Quotations like these latter two could be piled up by the score, but they would do nothing to alter the conclusion that, when two pronunciations of a given word are current among "cultivated" people, then both are correct. The policy which *Webster's* usually follows—and it is a sensible one—is to list first that pronunciation which is the more common, but this fact should not be interpreted as meaning that the second is therefore less correct. Likewise, if a variant pronunciation thus current is not listed in a dictionary, this emphatically does not mean that the pronunciation is wrong but only that the dictionary editors have been nodding.

To construct a test which will really test the student's knowledge of pronunciation, and not penalize him for recognizing that a certain variant is really in good use, is no difficult matter. Dr. Jones' test might be used, but some revision is necessary. If her standard is retained, then the word list must be changed so that all words having variant pronunciations are omitted. Or, if the word list is retained intact, then the directions to the student must call for identification of those words which are often pronounced in more than one way.

[7] I have singled out this one dictionary only because I believe it treats pronunciation in general, and variants in particular, more fully and intelligently than any other American dictionary.

Such a test would help a student to realize that correct pronunciation is nothing more than the pronunciation actually used, rather than the whimsical or arbitrary dictum of some "authority."

NORMAN E. ELIASON, *University of Florida.*

To the Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

SOURCES OF HARMONY IN THE TEACHING OF SPEECH AND ENGLISH

At the Washington meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English in November of 1934 I was privileged to take part in a program at which the principal address was made by Professor J. M. O'Neill, who officially represented the National Association of Teachers of Speech. Professor O'Neill's topic was *The Relation of Speech to English: Suggestions for Coöperation.* At that same meeting was presented the *Experience Curriculum,* the most important document in the teaching of English since the report of Dr. Hosic's committee in 1917. This curriculum represented the careful work of over a hundred leaders in English education. Prominent among the chapters of that report was the section on speech, for which the National Council of Teachers of English was indebted to a committee loaned to us from your Association, consisting of Professor O'Neill, Miss Borchers, Mr. Everett L. Hunt, Mr. Carroll P. Lahman, Mrs. Emma Grant Meader, Miss Henrietta Prentiss, and Dr. Charles K. Thomas. Professor Ewbank also served on another sub-committee.

In dismissing this committee with thanks for their valuable contribution, the hope was expressed that the cordial relationships between the two societies, engendered by the association of this speech committee, might in some way be continued even though the immediate work in hand was completed. To that end a new committee of the English Council was appointed, called The Committee on the Relationship of Speech to English. The members were Mr. O'Neill, Miss Borchers, Miss Mulgrave, Dr. Fowler, Mr. Ward Green, Miss Mattie Lendrum, and myself as chairman. The following year, at my request, the committee was reorganized with Miss Borchers as co-chairman. The result, as you can see, is a kind of interlocking group, representative of both speech and English, working for both, and reporting to the official organizations of both.

I trust that the tediousness of this recital of history may be for-

given for the light it casts on the progress already made in knitting together two great societies whose fundamental aims can never be widely divergent.

It would be easy for me now, in view of the facts I have presented, to express a hands-across-the-sea message of friendship, and to close with the pious hope that as the years roll on we may grow in mutual esteem and reciprocal endeavor. To do so, however, would be only a gesture—graceful and civil, I hope—but empty of meaning and barren of consequences. I propose, therefore, to review the present relationships between speech and English, to discover sources of disharmony, and to offer, if not remedies, at least the foundations of recovery.

English and speech are not one and the same thing, but are different functions of the same thing. Man's rise from the animal to any degree of cultivation rests almost exclusively upon his power to communicate his ideas. The accumulated experience of our predecessors is worthless unless it can be passed on and we can comprehend it. This basic communication, which may be called the cornerstone of civilization, was until relatively recent times almost entirely in the form of speech. Universal literacy has not yet been achieved, even in America. Speech, in this general sense, is far more ancient than English, or any language now spoken in the world. And speech, communication in spoken words, still remains the basic tool in life and education for life. Without it our boasted civilization would vanish overnight and we should be little more than beasts until man's ingenuity should invent a new means of communication. Speech in this sense of communication and comprehension is our common foundation. It is that phase of human experience which forms the subject matter of courses in speech and courses in English. Such division as exists should properly be specialization of function for academic convenience and efficiency.

Among the ancients there is observable no dichotomy between the arts of literary composition and oral delivery. Rhetoric meant persuasion—persuasive thinking and persuasive speaking. The great orator was both a man of letters and a man of speech. We observe the same unity in the great orators of the early days of our own nation. There was no division in their minds regarding the act of public speaking—thought and literary construction were bent to the necessities of public appeal. In like manner their delivery was dignified by a solid grounding in literature and a command of the resources of language.

The present academic division of speech and English into separate departments appears to me to be a product of the bookishness of nineteenth-century scholarship. Literature forgot its debt to language, and particularly oral language; it became the study of books, research in dusty libraries, composition in silent, lonely chambers late at night. Literary research not only lost sight of its relationship to language and the oral tradition—it almost lost sight of life itself. Until very recent years, for example, college departments of English recognized no literary work less than half a century old as worthy of scholarly attention. Out of this preoccupation with books and literature as print arose the rebellion which fostered the creation of independent departments of speech in colleges and universities.

But it is not just to call speech wholly the off-spring of academic revolt. There was a long and honorable tradition of public speaking in this country, a sort of illegitimate child in the educational family, recognized but not wholly owned. If I do not stretch the figure too far, I might say that college speech of today is the progeny of oral literature sired by public speaking. Whatever his ancestry, the infant is vigorous and flourishing, and greater in significance than either of his parents.

If the history of language and communication point to the need for the unification of aims and practices in the teaching of a subject matter only recently divided, even more so do the findings of modern psychology emphasize that need. The psychologists constantly remind us of the essential unity and interdependence of human behavior. We neither learn nor act in isolated categories. If I read a poem aloud for my own pleasure or to convey my pleasure in it to others, do I exercise behavior peculiar to English literature, or peculiar to speech? Who would dare to classify my acts into exclusive categories? Is my appreciation of the thought of the poem entirely independent of its oral aspects, and my oral delivery utterly without regard for my grasp of thought and content? You will agree that such an idea is absurd. You will assert that no one can interpret a poem orally with success who does not appreciate its content, understand the poet's intention, and interpret correctly his emotions. Yet these are commonly regarded as the functions of literary appreciation. On the other hand, who would listen to my interpretation, or profit from it, if my voice, my body, my command of tone, pitch, and articulation were not instruments trained to perform my will? The act of interpretation is one single but complex pattern of be-

havior composed of integrated skills fostered alike by instruction in speech and English. The point is too obvious to labor further in the patterns of drama, oratory, public address, and even conversation. Each illustrates convincingly the essential unity of intellectual grasp and oral performance.

It would seem to be obvious, therefore, that in giving instruction leading to the cultivation of the use of language in its broadest sense, provision should be made for developing to the full the powers of voice and body. In academic terms, instruction in English is incomplete without sound instruction in speech. The corollary seems equally obvious—that instruction in the techniques of speech becomes mere virtuosity without the cultivation of understanding and appreciation through a solid grounding in composition and literature. For the student, a thorough integration of all that goes by the names of English and speech would appear indispensable to the highest development of his powers.

Despite the historical, psychological, and pedagogical reasons for a close union between speech and English in the education of youth, there is today disheartening evidence of lack of harmony and departmental isolation. English and speech are not taught as divergent manifestations of a common area of human experience, they are not properly integrated in the mind of the student, they are not, in some cases, even on good speaking terms with each other. For this condition we who represent college departments of speech and English must share the blame. We have permitted to grow, unconsciously perhaps, the seeds of disharmony which are reaped by college undergraduates and by high school students who are taught by college trained teachers.

Since the purpose of my paper is the creation of a responsibility for harmony and union, it is with some diffidence that I air faults and grievances. But as issues are never solved by avoiding them, I beg your understanding of my purpose as I review our short-comings, beginning with my side of the line.

In their relationships with departments of speech, there are three principal charges which may be fairly brought against departments of English and professors of English. These are ignorance, professional arrogance, and a narrow interpretation of the term "scholarship." The ignorance of professors of English regarding the aims, the work, and the products of speech education is colossal. This is, of course, a generalization. There are many notable exceptions. But by and large, professors of English do not know what speech is all

about. It is unfortunate but natural that they should identify it with its most public aspects—debate, drama, and oratory—and consequently regard it as the effort to dignify with academic approval and credit activities of a recreational and non-curricular nature. The solid intellectual and cultural contribution of speech education is neither seen nor appreciated. The fault, I feel, is not wholly theirs; few professors of English have had the opportunity to do work in speech, and the few that did more than likely endured a course in elocution or public speaking as these subjects were taught a generation ago. They regard these courses in much the same way the average engineer would a required course in Greek sculpture. It is perhaps because Professor Wichelns was my first instructor in speech that I have an understanding of your work denied my colleagues. Whatever the causes, the ignorance is there, and it is a perplexing obstacle to the constructive good-will I am humbly attempting to promote.

The second charge, of professional arrogance, is evidenced in a number of ways. Students in English are advised against taking courses in speech; they are led to believe that speech is not "respectable," not of sufficient academic importance to engage the attention of really serious students. This attitude is partly the fruit of the ignorance of which I have spoken, and partly the product of the narrow interpretation of scholarship, which is my next charge.

Scholarship is a hard term to define, but as it is used in English graduate work, it means library research. It is the gathering of literary facts, and related historical, biographical and economic facts. It deals almost exclusively with the past and is aimed at the clearer understanding and interpretation of the past. Scholarship in speech, except where it is frankly literary, must differ in purpose and technique from scholarship in English. There are, as your program here bears ample witness, proper and worthy fields of scholarship in speech, but these fields are either unknown to your colleagues in English, or are misunderstood. From this ignorance or misunderstanding arises the false but often-heard charge that graduate work in speech is devoid of scholarship.

Having thus exposed the short-comings of English, may I with equal frankness discuss what appear to me to be sources of legitimate criticism of speech?

It is my impression that the principal fault of college speech today is a sort of departmental self-consciousness. It is a natural outgrowth of the struggle for independence and recognition. Speech

is still on the defensive. In order to justify and advertise its right to a place in the academic family, speech has over-emphasized its differences from other fields, and particularly from English. It is well known that dissension among close relatives is always more bitter than among mere strangers. I shall illustrate this attitude by citing two instances from among many that have come to my attention. About two years ago I was asked to address a combined group of high school teachers of speech and English on the topic, *Common Objectives in the Teaching of Speech and English.* I was especially careful to give the aims of speech, for which I have the most hearty respect, their full due. The speaker who followed me, a University professor of speech, abandoned his original topic to take vigorous exception to my offering. "Speech," he said, "is something entirely different from English. The attempt to set up common grounds of objective and practice will lead to the loss of all that is essentially of the field of speech. I must insist upon asserting the distinct and unique character of speech."

The second incident arose in discussion with a representative of the General Education Board who is conducting research in the use of the radio in secondary education. "Everywhere I go," he said, "I strike the same obstacle to coöperative endeavor. Teachers of speech are willing enough to participate in programs, but they constantly insist upon technical courses in voice production and the technique of speech where our aim is the cultural advance of the student through the fusion of the language arts."

A second vulnerable point in speech instruction lies in the courses offered and the attitude engendered by those courses. I asked students and professors to list their criticisms of speech instruction, and offer them here as straws in the wind, without comment.

1. Courses in speech over-stress the techniques of speech at the expense of the content.

2. In the general education of undergraduates pathological and clinical speech assume too much importance.

3. Social speech, the use of speech in the ordinary affairs of life, is subordinated in practice if not by intent, to the forensic aspects of speech.

4. Much confusion appears in the use of the term "linguistics" in speech departments. For example, there is one university department which calls itself the Department of Speech and General Linguistics, but on its staff there is no one of recognized standing in what is generally called linguistics, while a sister department of the

same university has no less than four nationally recognized linguists.

5. Departments of speech in some schools tend to duplicate existing courses and research, as in the fields of dramatic literature, phonetics, and English usage. Sometimes these courses are taught by persons whose training and experience in these technical fields may be questioned.

6. Instructors of speech are in some cases making statements regarding the English language and its history which betray an exceedingly meager linguistic background.

7. Artificial or false standards of American pronunciation are still current. Highly debatable distinctions in pronunciation, as between *duty* [djuti] and *duty* [duti] and *not* [nat] and *not* [nɒt] are given too much emphasis. In some cases a regional or provincial dialect is held up as a national standard.

If some of these criticisms are trivial, if some are unfair or even untrue, they still seem to me to point to one obvious conclusion: they are the result of the artificial division of a field of instruction which is essentially one. I do not plead for a merger between speech and English. Even were such a fusion desirable administratively, the time for it is long past. But I do plead for a change of attitude, a new deal for the student, which will preserve for him the genuine integration of speech and English which we have academically separated. I ask for a fusion of endeavor and purpose like that in physics and chemistry. Those two sciences are actually more distinct in subject matter than are speech and English, but in the training of physicists and chemists they are harmoniously united. The student finds no divergence of aim, no insistence upon uniqueness. Chemists do not scorn physicists. The two fields are essential in the training of specialists in either. Nor does the chemist rest with taking Physics I. His grounding in the science is solid and thorough. He knows that without physics he can never be a sound chemist.

Some such harmonious relationship between speech and English is the burden of my paper. What can we do about it? What shall be the future relationships of English and speech. How shall we regard the boundaries which lead to departmental division and narrow lines of instruction? I repeat the question with its answer in the words of Professor O'Neill in his speech of four years ago: "Shall the line (of division) be an imaginary and immaterial boundary running across open roads, unfenced fields, and unfortified passes; or shall it be a great and, for the most part, impenetrable wall, marked by threatening fortresses and quarrelsome armed pa-

trols? It is fundamentally a question of the degree of civilization, the validity of objectives sought, and the essential decency of the personal habits and behavior of the people on the opposite sides of the line."

I am sent to you by the National Council of Teachers of English with a message of good will. That good will may only become fact when we can together evolve a theory and practice of instruction which destroys the walls of departmental division, building with the same stones a broad and smooth highway to bear the traffic of our united march forward.

SANDS CHIPMAN, *Emerson College*

To the Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

For the last three years the North Carolina Association of Teachers of Speech has conducted the Southeastern Forensic Tournament, a tournament in experimental speech contests. The purpose of the tournament is to test novel speech contest forms over a period of several years. At the end of that time, the forms tested will be:

a. Recommended to other tournament associations for adoption, if successful.
b. Discontinued if unsuccessful, and the results of the experiment published for the guidance of other associations.

The following three contest forms, designed to emphasize the life-situation element, were found successful, and in March, 1938, were adopted as permanent contest forms by the South Atlantic Forensic Association:

1. Forensic Project in Problem Solving.
   A. Each contestant will be seated in a separate room. He will be given a 300 word description of a problem confronting some group of students or citizens. Each speaker will have 20 minutes to prepare his solution.
   B. The judges are given 20 minutes to inspect the problem, before hearing the first speaker. Each speaker will present a solution to the problem in a speech of not more than 7 minutes.

The contest in Problem Solving has also been adopted by the Dixie Tournament, held the first week in December at Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina.

2. Project in Stimulating Group Discussion.
   A. It is to be imagined that each contestant is to appear as the opening speaker before a non-collegiate forum or discussion

group in a typical American town. The group has gathered to discuss strengthening the American Navy as a protection against possible Japanese aggression. The judges will vote for the speaker who:

1. Most clearly presents the issues.
2. And presents the issues in such a way that a lively discussion from the audience will surely follow.

3. Project in Formulating Group Opinion.
   A. The same topic will be used as in 2.
   B. Each speaker will be given a typed summary of the group discussion supposed to have preceded his speech. This summary will outline the existence of three vehemently clashing groups into which the original group has split. The speaker will have twenty minutes to prepare a seven-minute speech which will advance some compromise (or unperceived) solution acceptable to at least a majority of the entire group.

The North Carolina Association urges the consideration of these contests by other tournament associations. It also urges the adoption of the Impromptu Speaking Contest, now a regular part of the program of the Dixie, Appalachian Mountain, South Atlantic, and Grand Eastern tournaments.

The following two contest forms were held over by the Association for further test:

1. Project in the Most Acceptable Presentation to a Hostile Audience.
   A. Same procedure as in Project in Problem Solving except that speaker is directed to advocate a specific solution to which the audience is actively hostile. The reason for the hostility of the audience will be briefly stated on the typed sheets.
2. Response-to-Situation After-Dinner Speaking Contest.
   A. The toastmaster will give a prepared speech of approximately eight minutes.
   B. The first speaker will reply immediately to this speech. Each succeeding speaker will follow immediately the man preceding him. Each speaker may speak not more than five minutes. The use of "canned humor" is discouraged. Speakers using jokes or stories previously printed must give the source of their material.
   C. Each speaker will be graded on:
      1. Wit and cleverness.
      2. Adaptability to the speech of the toastmaster and the other

speeches, especially the speech immediately preceding his. A final report will be made next year on these two forms.

Direct Clash Debate

The revised rules were published in the Quarterly Journal of Speech, October, 1937. This form was used for one round at the Appalachian Mountain Tournament held at Boone, North Carolina, February, 1938, under the direction of Appalachian State Teachers College. The form will be used again next year at this tournament.

The South Atlantic Tournament has provided for the optional use of the Direct Clash debate in the fifth and sixth rounds of the 1939 tournament.

Experience has shown that the Direct Clash form can be used in tournament debating, and that it provides a training for both the debaters and the judges not inherent in the standard form. It is hoped that other tournament associations will provide a place in their 1939 tournaments for some experience in Direct Clash debating.

Edwin H. Paget, *North Carolina State College*

SCHEDULE OF MEETINGS: N.A.T.S.

	TUESDAY, DECEMBER 27	
8:30 A.M.	Registration begins.	Mezzanine Floor
9:00 A.M.	Meeting of Executive Council	Terminal Room
2:00 P.M.	Joint Session (N.T.C., A.E.T.A., and N.A.T.S.)	Ball Room
5:00 P.M.–6:30 P.M.	Reception and fellowship get-together for old and new members	Ball Room
	WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 28	
9:00 A.M.	General Session	Ball Room
10:00 A.M.	Reports of standing and special committees and election of nominating committee	Ball Room
10:30 A.M.	Forensics	Room 31
10:30 A.M.	Oral Interpretation	Red Room
10:30 A.M.	American Oratory	Assembly A
10:30 A.M.	Speech for the Deaf	Assembly B
10:30 A.M.	Elementary and Junior High Schools	Room 1
10:30 A.M.	Junior Colleges	Room 3
10:30 A.M.	Phonetics	Room 5
2:30 P.M.	General Session—N.A.T.S. and A.E.T.S.	Ball Room
4:00 P.M.	Discussion	Assembly A
4:00 P.M.	Voice, Diction	Red Room
4:00 P.M.	Tests and Measurements	Assembly A
4:00 P.M.	Adult Speech Education	Room 31
4:00 P.M.	Story Telling	Ball Room
4:00 P.M.	Radio Speaking	Assembly B
4:00 P.M.	High School Curriculum	Room 1
	THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29	
9:30 A.M.	General Session	Ball Room
11:00 A.M.	Fundamentals	Ball Room
11:00 A.M.	Speech Correction	Red Room
11:00 A.M.	High School Curriculum	Room 1
11:00 A.M.	Speech for the Deaf	Assembly B
11:00 A.M.	Junior Colleges	Room 3
12:30 P.M.	Luncheons	
2:30 P.M.	General Session—N.A.T.S. and A.S.C.A.	Ball Room
4:00 P.M.	Oral Interpretation	Red Room
4:00 P.M.	Forensics	Assembly A
4:00 P.M.	Tests and Measurements	Assembly B
4:00 P.M.	Radio Speaking	Ball Room
4:00 P.M.	Oratory	Room 34
7:30 P.M.	Choral Twilight Service	Ball Room
	FRIDAY, DECEMBER 30	
9:30 A.M.	General Session	Ball Room
11:00 A.M.	Oral Interpretation	Red Room
11:00 A.M.	Fundamentals	Ball Room
11:00 A.M.	Elementary and Junior High Schools	Assembly A
11:00 A.M.	Discussion	Assembly B
11:00 A.M.	Tests and Measurements	Room 34
2:00 P.M.	General Session	Ball Room
3:00 P.M.	Executive Council	Terminal Room

PROGRAM

TUESDAY, DECEMBER 27

8:30 A.M.	Registration begins.	Mezzanine Floor
	(NOTE: All persons attending convention, members or visitors, are requested to register and receive badges as early as possible. Admission to sessions of the Convention will be by badge only.	
9:00 A.M.	Meeting of Executive Council	Terminal Room
2:00 P.M.	Joint Session (N.T.C., A.E.T.A, N.A.T.S.) Presiding: The President of N.A.T.S.	Ball Room

SPEAKERS FOR JOINT SESSION

Speakers for A.E.T.E.: Barclay Leathem, E. C. Mabie, Paul Green.

Speakers for N.T.C.: Frederick McConnell, Gilmor Brown, Barrett Clark.

Speakers for N.A.T.S.: H. A. Wichelns, G. E. Densmore, C. M. Wise, C. T. Simon.

(Each association will have one hour in which to present its speakers.)

5:00 P.M. Reception and fellowship get-together for old and new members, Officers, committee chairmen, and convention speakers are requested to be in receiving line. This to include all affiliates.

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 28

9:00 A.M.	Address: Harry G. Barnes	Ball Room
9:40 A.M.	Panel discussion	Ball Room
10:00 A.M.	Reports of Standing and Special Committees and election of nominating committee	Ball Room

Approximately one hundred papers, reports and discussions will be presented at the various sectional meetings. Space limitation prevents the printing of the complete list here. A few of the speakers who will appear, together with their subjects, are the following: Allen Crafton, *The Problem of Action in Interpretation;* John H. Myskens, *The Development of Speech;* Louis M. Eich, *Relation of Content, Form, and Style to Interpretative Reading;* J. Richard Bietry, *Terminal Speech Courses for Junior Colleges;* Bower Aly, *Current Opinion About Debating;* Winnie Mae Crawford, *Interpretation Through Story Telling;* J. Edmund Mayer, *The Mechanics of Developing a Debate Case;* J. L. McNabb, *A Suggestive Method for the Study of Speeches Applied to Edmund Burke;* Irving Lee, *Emotional Appeal and Rhetorical Theory;* Lionel Crocker, *Henry Ward Beecher and the English Press of 1863;* S. A. Toussaint, *A Rating Blank of Common Annoyances in Public Speaking;* Sara Stinchfield Hawk, *Ophthomograph Studies of Improvement in Reading;* Forest Rose, *The Use of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory in the Teaching of Speech;* Gladys Davis, *Methods of Introducing Speech to the Congenitally Deaf and Hard of Hearing Child;* C. K. Thomas, *Unstressed Syllables in Upstate New York.*

PROGRAM OF THE AMERICAN SPEECH CORRECTION ASSOCIATION

Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio
December 27-28-29-30, 1938

Including Joint Program with
THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

TUESDAY, DECEMBER 27TH

Morning

9:00 A.M. Business Meeting of the American Speech Correction Association
11:00 A.M. President's Address: Dr. Max A. Goldstein, M.D.
11:30 A.M. Forum: "The Year, 1938, in Speech Disorders"
12:00 M. Recess

Afternoon

TECHNICAL PAPERS

2:00 P.M. Some Semantic Aspects of Stuttering—Wendell Johnson, Iowa
2:25 P.M. Discussion
2:40 P.M. Oral Recitation Problems of Stutterers. Case Study—Thelma A. Knudson, South Bend, Ind.
3:05 P.M. Discussion
3:20 P.M. Personality Traits of College Stutterers—James F. Bender, Queens College, New York City
3:45 P.M. Discussion
4:00 P.M. Speech Physiology
4:25 P.M. Discussion
4:40 P.M. Effect of Deafness on Speech and Voice—Marion K. Mason, Ohio State University
5:00 P.M. Discussion
5:10 P.M. Recess

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 28TH

JOINT MEETING OF THE AMERICAN SPEECH CORRECTION ASSOCIATION AND NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

Program on Subject of SPEECH DISORDERS—Principles and Practice

Morning

JOINT PROGRAM

9:30 A.M. Address: Professor J. T. Marshman, President, National Association of Teachers of Speech
10:00 A.M. Address: Practical Aspects of Speech Correction—Max A. Goldstein, M.D., President, American Speech Correction Association
10:30 A.M. Panel: The Interfunction of the Elementary Teacher and the Speech Therapist in the Speech Problems of School Children
12:15 Recess.

Afternoon

2:00 P.M. The Problem of Stuttering:
2:25 P.M. Discussion
2:40 P.M. Treatment of Stuttering:
3:00–
5:00 P.M. Panel Discussion, Based on the Practice of Some Universities and Public Schools.
5:00 P.M. Recess.

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29TH
JOINT PROGRAM
Morning

9:30 A.M. The Problem of Functional Dyslalias in Adults
10:00 A.M. Discussion
10:20 A.M. Methods of Treatment for Adults
10:45 A.M. Discussion
11:00 A.M. Problems of Functional Dyslalias in Children
11:25 A.M. Discussion
11:40 A.M. Methods of Treatment for Children
12:05 P.M. Discussion
12:20 P.M. Recess

Afternoon

2:00 P.M. Problem of Functional Vocal Disorders
2:30 P.M. Discussion
3:00 P.M. Methods of Treatment for Adults
3:25 P.M. Discussion
3:40 P.M. Methods of Treatment for Children
4:05 P.M. Discussion
4:20 P.M. Problem of Vocal Training in Organic Dysphonias
4:45 P.M. Discussion
5:00 P.M. Recess

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 30TH
JOINT PROGRAM
Problems in the Educational Field
Morning

9:30 A.M. The Traveling Clinic
10:10 A.M. Discussion
10:20 A.M. The Speech Survey
10:45 A.M. Discussion
11:00 A.M. Introducing Speech Correction Classes into New Public School Systems
11:25 A.M. Discussion
11:40 A.M. Techniques in Foreign Dialect
12:05 P.M. Discussion
12:20 P.M. Recess

Morning
Technical Section
American Speech Correction Association

9:30 A.M. Pre- and Post-Speaking Breathing of Stutterers and Non-Stutterers: E. H. Henrikson, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Ia.

9:55 A.M. Discussion
10:10 A.M. Stuttering in Relation to Size and Personnel of Audience: Harriet Porter, Dept. of Speech, Simpson College, Indianola, Ia.
10:35 A.M. Discussion
10:50 A.M. Ear Training Techniques in Treatment and Articulating Disorders: C. Van Riper, Western Speech Clinic, Kalamazoo, Michigan
11:15 A.M. Discussion
11:40 A.M. Prognosis in Post Operative Cleft-Palate Speech
12:15 P.M. Discussion
12:30 P.M. Recess

Afternoon

Problems in the Technical Field

2:00 P.M. The Problem of Cleft Palate Speech
2:25 P.M. Discussion
2:40 P.M. Methods for Re-education of Cleft Palate Speech
3:05 P.M. Discussion
3:20 P.M. The Problem of Spastic Speech
3:45 P.M. Discussion
4:00 P.M. Methods of Treatment for Spastic Speech
4:25 P.M. Discussion
4:40 P.M. Adjournment

To the President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH AND TO THE Editor of the JOURNAL:

The undersigned sustaining members recommend the following amendment to the constitution of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH:

In article III (Executive Council), add:

Section 5. The Executive Council shall each year adopt a budget of expenditures and revenues for the coming year. The budget shall be printed in the JOURNAL, in the first or second issue after adoption.

Bower Aly	Lee Norvelle
W. Norwood Brigance	J. M. O'Neill
Donald C. Bryant	F. M. Rarig
Thomas E. Coulton	Loren D. Reid
A. M. Drummond	J. P. Ryan
Bert Emsley	Fredrica V. Shattuck
Charles A. Fritz	Jane Bliss Taylor
Wilbur E. Gilman	Russell H. Wagner
Guy S. Greene	H. A. Wichelns
Lou Kennedy	Arleigh B. Williamson
E. C. Mabie	J. A. Winans
Dorothy I. Mulgrave	Jane Dorsey Zimmerman

October, 1938

EDITORIAL

The Cleveland meeting Dec. 27, 28, 29, 30, promises to be excellent. Every teacher of speech should be there. Nothing else furnishes such rich rewards in personal and professional friendships, indications of current educational trends, and general stimulation of fresh enthusiasm.

The QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH is supplementing the invitation of President Marshman and his staff by printing in the Forum section an early version of the program, containing the main events of the general sessions, followed by a list of some of the speakers who will appear in the sectional meetings.

Watch for the complete program when it appears in booklet form, and make every effort to attend!

There will be prominent speakers both before the general sessions and in the sectional meetings. Professor H. A. Wichelns, the past president, will appear on one of the general sessions. Professor Andrew Weaver, University of Wisconsin, who was not with us last year, will speak on one of the programs. The following are chairmen of sectional programs and are fully responsible for the getting of speakers in their respective sections: Oral Interpretation, Miss Gertrude Johnson, University of Wisconsin; Argumentation and Debate, I. M. Cochran, Carleton College; Radio Speaking, Henry L. Ewbank, University of Wisconsin; High School Curriculum, Gladys Borchers, University of Wisconsin: Fundamentals, Hurst Anderson, Allegheny College; General chairman for the programs of American Speech Correction Association, H. J. Heltman, Syracuse University; Story Telling, M. Pearl Lloyd, Ohio Wesleyan University; Speech for the Deaf, Sherman K. Smith, New York City; Oratory, L. M. Eich, University of Michigan; Elementary and Junior High Schools, Ellen C. Henderson, Chicago; Speech Education, Tests and Measurements, Franklin H. Knower, University of Minnesota; Voice and Diction, Ralph Dennis, Northwestern University; Phonetics, C. M. Wise, Louisiana State University; Junior Colleges, Sylvia Mariner, Washington, D. C.; Discussion, J. Jeffery Auer, Oberlin College.

NEW BOOKS

The College Standard Dictionary of the English Language. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1937 xxxiv+1309. $3.50.

The new edition of Funk and Wagnalls' College dictionary has been brought up to date in its vocabulary, but is essentially the same in other respects as earlier dictionaries in the Funk and Wagnalls series. It is a handy book, with one alphabetical order throughout, except for a brief appendix of foreign words and phrases. The dual system of marking pronunciation continues: the "Text-book Key," which is much the same as the Webster and Century keys; and the "Revised Scientific Alphabet," which was originally sponsored by the National Educational Association, but which has long since outlived its usefulness. For vocabulary the book is useful; for pronunciation, no more than a makeshift.

C. K. THOMAS, *Cornell University*

The Speech of East Texas. By OMA STANLEY, New York: Columbia University Press, 1937; pp. x+135. $2.50.

This is an important doctoral dissertation, which was originally published in four installments in *American Speech,* and which has now been reissued as a unit. The work is based on observations of the speech of fifteen of Texas' more than two hundred counties; it is thus intensive in scope, does not attempt to differentiate the speech of various parts of the state, nor does it attempt to locate the theoretical line which runs down through Texas and supposedly separates southern from western speech. The closest parallel to Stanley's study is Emerson's doctoral dissertation of nearly fifty years ago, *The Ithaca Dialect.*

Among the satisfactory features of Stanley's study are the differentiation of social types of speech: the plantation, hill, and Negro types; and the large number of illustrative words for each phoneme and each variation. The documentation is thorough. It is to be hoped that the author will continue his investigations of this rich field.

C. K. THOMAS, *Cornell University*

Doorways to Poetry. By LOUIS UNTERMEYER, in consultation with BERTHA EVANS WARD and RUTH M. STAUFFER. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938; pp. viii+514. $1.32.

In this text for high school use, Mr. Untermeyer proposes to lead the student through the sacred portals of poetry by genially breaking down the stock objections of juvenile philistines. "Is poetry effeminate?" anticipates the author and then proceeds to quell all such suspicion by the documentation of a famous football hero who kept Kipling's "If" pasted on the fly-leaf of his geometry text-book.

"Is poetry 'obscure'?" he continues and smilingly assures us that in the long run, and with a little modest study of rime-schemes, thesaurus, literary history and dictionaries, it is a much simpler matter than a normal newspaper paragraph.

But in spite of his tendency to over-simplify the nature and problems of poetry, and its appreciation, Mr. Untermeyer performs a genuine service in relating the materials of poetry to the homely facts of every day life. Add to this a widely representative, if sometimes undiscriminating, sampling of all traditions and genres of poetry and the book becomes a rather rich compendium designed to pique the most recalcitrant youngster into an enjoyment of verse.

VIVIENNE C. KOCH, *Mount Holyoke College*

Education on the Air: Eighth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHEY. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1937; pp. 365. $3.00.

This yearbook is wholly admirable in intention and scope. Its chief value would seem to be the advice and information which those who are initiating projects in school radio work can obtain from it on such important matters as the training of students for radio work in school; the problems to be faced in the organization and development of the workshop; sound effects; and the very difficult problems involved in the discovery or creation of an audience for educational broadcasting. By no means the least valuable parts of this collection are the roll call of educational stations and the excellent bibliography of radio education.

As is probably well known, the yearbook has grown out of the proceeding of the Institute for Education by Radio sponsored by Ohio State University. Much of this program takes the form of the round table discussion, and about half of the present volume is devoted to the report of such discussions. While recognizing the special virtues of this technique for those in the field, this reviewer

is inclined to question the value to the reader of the verbatim report of such material. The organized presentation of points of view and information which the essay or speech implies seems to permit an easier grasp on the reader's part of a topic's content than is possible from haphazard development, which is the chief virtue to those present of the round table technique.

DAVID DRISCOLL, *Brooklyn College.*

Plays for Autumn and Winter Holidays. Selected by A. P. SANFORD. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1938; pp. 259. $2.50.

A. P. Sanford's new collection is not, I regret to say, an answer to a play director's prayer! Perhaps they were the best available, for seasonal children's plays are seldom good, but the fact remains that they are mediocre. And unfortunately, one of the poorest—Perry Corneau's *The Earth is Flat,* is the opening play in the book.

Anna Jane Harnwell's *At the Spanish Court* is well worth using in an assembly program. It treats the Columbus story with dignity, and the costuming, if as handsome as described, would lend pageantry to the effect. A pioneer play by the same author, *The Well,* has the value of being exciting, but the disadvantage of requiring a very tiny child as an important member of the cast.

Some Witch! a play by Lucy Barton in which fortunes are told at a party, would do very well for a Hallowe'en assembly for eighth or ninth grade, though it is inconsequential. And *Far Voices,* by Delle Oglesbee Ross, is usable for Armistice Day, bringing over the radio by a new invention the voices of Lincoln, Washington, and even Christ, in the interest of peace.

Frances Hodgson Burnett's *Prince Fairyfoot* has been put into four short scenes by Maude Stewart Beagle, and though it loses much of the charm of the fairy tale, it might be staged rather delightfully.

Of the twelve other plays, Phyllis Marschall's *Music Hath Power,* showing events from the life of Robert Schumann, might be used for Music Week if the staging could be managed (the Schumann family scenes are shown as visions in a modern living-room); *The Year That Wouldn't Be New,* by Grace Ruthenburg, suggesting a *Blue Bird* scene, would have interest as a New Year's play; and *The Valentine Box,* by Mirjane Strong, with characters as valentines which come sliding into the box, would be charming for a valentine party.

WINIFRED WARD, *Northwestern University*

The Preparation and Delivery of Sermons. By CARL S. PATTON. Chicago: Willett, Clark and Co., 1938; pp. xi+191. $2.00.

This fifth volume in "The Minister's Professional Library" unhesitatingly places the sermon at the heart of the Christian ministry. "The real output of a church is the ideas that come from its pulpit." The advice it offers is basically sound in its emphasis upon earnestness, audience adaptation, and thoughtful substance. When the author declares (p. 81), "An unusually large vocabulary is no better for the average man than an unusually large hat," one wonders. This wonder changes to suspicious bewilderment when (p. 115) he naively assumes that there is a distinction between "native" and "acquired" vocabularies. He is sceptical of the advantages of clipping and filing systems. He feels that "The fundamental element in public speech is force," and illustrates this contention interestingly. The book is a little garrulous, hastily written, and occasionally stimulating.

ROBERT T. OLIVER, *Bucknell University*

Your Speaking Voice. By HARRISON M. KARR. Glendale, California: Griffin-Patterson Publishing Co., 1938; pp. 313. $2.25.

Increasingly, interest in the field of speech has been directed toward good voice and diction, and among the books that have appeared in this field this has several unique features. Professor Karr has assembled from a rather wide variety of sources the advice of outstanding actors and public speakers and has woven this advice into a really teachable text.

It is a matter of common observation that experts in a given field are frequently less aware of the basic sources of their success than are disinterested observers of less professional ability. As one runs through the different bits of advice given by the experts, one is aware that the writers have frequently misjudged the elements which have made them successful. Nevertheless, the beginner in the study of voice and diction is bound to be inspired by the words of those who have achieved greatly, and this inspiration undoubtedly more than offsets any false leads that the expert may give the beginner. In any event, the lead, even when false, is not apt to do a great deal of damage, while the inspiration and the interest given the beginner is sure to do a great deal of good.

Several of our teachers have made classroom trials of this text in the second semester of our voice and diction classes. They all report excellent results from the text and a heightened enthusiasm for the work of the class because of the excellent presentation of the material.

The book is admittedly elementary and is designed for the beginner. Those who look for a highly technical treatment of voice and diction will be disappointed; but those who look for a really teachable text, one that will stimulate interest and inspire to real effort will find this book exceedingly valuable. That this textbook reaches the student has been clearly demonstrated in practice.

RAY KEESLAR IMMEL, *University of California*

Speak for Yourself; a Guide to Civilized Conservation. By ALAN MARSHALL. New York: Hillman-Curl, 1937; pp. 165. $2.00.

The number of spirited self-help books in speaking has been here added to by one; there, perhaps, under ordinary circumstances, this review might well stop. But there are distinctive qualities to this volume which beg us to consider it somewhat more carefully.

First it must be observed that the writer of the volume is undoubtedly clever. He has a remarkable fund of anecdotes, some a bit brash, and he knows exactly how to make full use of them as illustrations.

Second, the chapter-headings are lively and inspire reading of the chapter if only for curiosity's sake. "The Joys of Jaw Music," "It Never Rains But It Bores," "The Words for Wear," "Keep Your Foot Out of Your Mouth," "The Silver Chords," "See?-Sickness" —these are but a few of the suggestive titles for chapters.

Third, the author should be commended for his stand against "imposing moral judgments upon words, which in themselves can possess no moral values whatever." Though of couse this is not a new point, it has been labored all too infrequently in speech books.

Finally, for a sprightly style the book is certainly to be recommended. One may agree or disagree with all of Mr. Marshall's ideas, but one cannot escape being fascinated by his way of expressing them.

THEODORE G. EHRSAM, *New York City*

The Beginner's Puppet Book. By ALICE M. HOBEN. New York: Noble and Noble, Publishers, 1938; pp. 150. $2.00.

Of the many books on the subject of puppets for beginners, Miss Hoben's is certainly among the most attractive. Beautifully illustrated with full-page photographs of pupils at work, it gives a clearer idea of what actually takes place in the workshop and what may be expected from children than any book yet published. Following the brief chapters on how to construct marionettes and fist puppets,

how to string and manipulate and how to construct and light a simple stage, there are five plays. The text is further supplemented by line drawings, simple diagrams and lists of materials and tools needed.

This book is an outgrowth of Miss Hoben's successful teaching experience . . . directions are simple and clear. Perhaps two minor criticisms might be directed toward certain details. The dialogue of the plays is occasionally stilted and jerky and it has apparently been overlooked that the arms of the puppets are consistently too long to be in proportion. However, the book is distinctly to be recommended. It should be of interest to all elementary school teachers and young craftsmen.

JEAN STARR WIKSELL, *Stephens College*

How to Organize and Conduct a Meeting. By W. H. F. HENRY and LEVI SEELEY. New York: Noble and Noble, 1938, Revised Edition; pp. v + 133.

That a textbook—whether revision or not—should be up-to-date both in material and in teaching procedures is not, perhaps, expecting too much. This work, a revision of a 1926 edition, does not meet such expectation. Over the past several decades changes have been taking place in the procedures of group leadership. Widespread experience in the conduct of large and small groups has demonstrated that the wise leader will adapt his procedure to the group rather than try to make all groups conform to a set system. The distinctions between groups and something of the theory of adaptation have been so well discussed by Robert D. Leigh in his *Group Leadership* that any subsequent book which ignores this material represents some short-sightedness. Works by Sheffield and other writers on group leadership notwithstanding, the authors of this book say "It [parliamentary procedure] is practical for every type of gathering no matter how formal or informal, how important or how insignificant."

The work represents a somewhat different parliamentary system from that in common usage, that following the form of Robert's *Rules of Order*. Robert's book is so much the accepted authority that the major contemporary parliamentary textbooks are built on Robert's rules. Where a system has been so widely accepted, it seems unwise for an author of a new work to adhere to an older, perhaps more personal system. The classification of motions is quite different from that of contemporary texts, and the rules of procedure widely divergent. This would make the book seem in many places to be in error, whereas in reality it appears to follow a somewhat

unlike system. However, a work to so considerable a degree divergent from common usage does not seem well adapted to the classroom.

Parliamentary law, which at first glance seems to be an arbitrary, unrelated system of rules, is at best a subject difficult for the student to grasp. Many authors, including General Robert, render the subject more difficult than it should be by ignoring, in exposition, the logical reasons for the rules. Practically all parliamentary rules are based either on principles of the reasonable thing to do, or on greatest expediency. To be educationally sound, a work on this subject should first raise the preliminary problem which needs to be solved, then show the reasonableness of the solution and the rules thereof. Recent authors, including Gregg, Hall and Sturgis, Garfield Jones, Leigh, and Reeves, make an effort to do this. The Henry and Seeley book contains little of the syllabi, the parliamentary dialogue, the synthesized relationships representative of these other works. Perhaps the greatest lack is absence of the words in which a motion is made, stated, and put, the sort of thing given in Robert's *Parliamentary Practice,* also the other works heretofore referred to.

Condensation at the expense of completeness and thoroughness of explanation would seem to be a weakness. A not unrepresentative example is the entire discussion on "The Filling of Blanks," which will be seen to exemplify a number of weaknesses heretofore enumerated:

> There are special regulations for this in almost every organization and no uniformity has been practised. Motions may be made to fill a blank with a time or a number, and each motion put to vote before another is made; or several may be made, and all be pending before any come to the vote. In filling up blanks, the largest sums and longest time shall be put first.

Unfortunately, *How to Organize and Conduct a Meeting* makes no contribution to the textbook or other literature on parliamentary law. It is below the standard of current texts on the subject, in thoroughness, in educational method, and in social adaptation.

ARLEIGH B. WILLIAMSON, *New York University*

Principles and Practices of Speech Correction (with glossary of 500 technical terms). By JAMES F. BENDER and VICTOR M. KLEINFELD. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation; pp. xiii + 298. $2.25.

Few classroom teachers or speech correctionists will agree with the authors' view that the classroom teacher should be asked to initiate and carry out a program of speech correction.

The classroom teacher who comes to this book for help will have little use for the hundreds of ponderous technical terms which burden the descriptions of speech disorders and are translated a second time in alphabetical order in the glossary. The reader who is not already weil grounded in the physics and physiology of speech will be confused by the material presented for his orientation in those fundamental sciences.

The problem of the causes of stuttering is not clarified by the survey given here, in which the views of more than fifty authorities and investigators are squeezed into nine pages. Twelve pages are devoted to the description of eleven corrective methods. In this section Dr. Robert West is given five lines, and the methods in use at Iowa are inadequately illustrated by a set of exercises in left-handed penmanship.

The authors express some curious beliefs. They state (p. 146) that wearing a belt instead of suspenders to hold up the pants causes flat-chestedness, and is "a serious cause of vocal incompetence." They point out (p. 243) that "most stutterers are pale, frightened, and tired-looking." They report (p. 223) that "a questionnaire recently submitted to 105 stutterers revealed, among other items, that over sixty percent of the stutterers disliked one or more vegetables, usually spinach or carrots."

The book contains a number of misprints. Among them, *gutterophonia* (on p. 67) becomes *gutturophonia* on p. 277, and *gutteraphonia* on p. 294. Eisenson's *The Psychology of Speech* is referred to as *Speech Pathology* (p. 227).

Help for the speech correctionist may be found in the directions, materials, and record forms for the diagnostic examination, the discussion of motivating the student and his parents, and the drill materials and directions. Many of the drills are based on the authors' "rate-control" technique, which was set forth previously in their *Speech Correction Manual.*

The title leads one to expect a bigger and a better book.

WILLIAM J. TEMPLE, *Brooklyn College*

Types of Persuasion. By HAROLD F. GRAVES and JOHN S. BOWMAN. New York: The Cordon Company, 1938; 200 pp. $1.25.

Most teachers of persuasion accent the fact that its techniques may be employed with either ethical or unethical intent, but too often merely a cursory caution against the latter satisfies the conscience that debt to student and society has been discharged. This need no

longer be. For here is an integrated collection of examples of persuasion dedicated to the proposition that the citizen shall not be taken in; its salutary emphasis on detection of motive as well as method tends to define by implication that subtle difference between propaganda in its denotative and in its unfortunate connotative sense.

The selections have been eclectically compiled. There are expository, narrative, descriptive, and argumentative styles. Subject matter comprises politics, economics, sociology, sport, education and literature abounding in contemporary reference. Forms include advertisement, editorial, column, article, review, pamphlet, letter, and address. The basis of classification into seven groups is that of dominant method: appeal to prejudices; appeal to wants; rationalization; simplification; conciliation; understatement, hyperbole, and irony; implication.

Prudent editing helps the student to help himself. Preceding each section is an introduction which, though brief, explicitly points the student's study. At the end of each selection are questions which, though far from exhaustive, are acutely provocative; on them students will sharpen their critical wits, and with them as a basis the discerning may frame adequate analysis. Assignments could be made in this book with little or no classroom explication.

Noteworthy is the reduction to a minimum of overlapping of types. Commendable is the stressing of the audience as the determining factor in choice and execution of persuasive technique. In spite of the disproportion between the written and the spoken word—only six of the forty-seven selections fall into the latter category—this book will be found by many teachers of speech to be an enlivening supplement to class discussion and practice of theory: for in addition to training the student to be an astute persuader, it constitutes a step toward making him a wary persuadee.

J. CALVIN CALLAGHAN, *Lehigh University*

The Troubled Mind. By C. S. BLUEMEL. Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkins Co., 1938; pp. ix + 520. $3.50.

Now that we are beginning to realize that every speech teacher is in effect a teacher of applied psychology, books such as Dr. Bluemel's *The Troubled Mind* may be considered required reading. Bluemel's text will help to round out the student's background in the psychology of abnormal persons. It presents a description of nervous and mental diseases in terms which are simple but which

sacrifice no scientific accuracy because of their simplicity. Abnormalities are considered as deviations from the norm so that the reader who is essentially interested in "normal" people will still find the reading of *The Troubled Mind* a worthwhile investment.

It is to be regretted that Bluemel did not devote more time to a presentation of the speech symptoms of the mental deviate. The author contented himself with a discussion of hysterical loss of voice (dysphonia and aphonia) and stuttering. The book would have been more directly valuable to those of us who are working in the field of speech had Bluemel correlated his knowledge of the defective in speech with his evident great knowledge of the mentally abnormal. Such a correlated presentation would have resulted in a doubly important contribution both to students of medicine, to whom *The Troubled Mind* is primarily addressed, and to students of speech.

JON EISENSON, *Brooklyn College*

Say It With Words; the Principles of Effective Speech-Making. By I. M. FLAPAN. New York: Sovereign House, 1938; pp. 285. $2.50.

From a practicing attorney one would scarcely expect so finished a book on public speaking as this. Perhaps the author's great skill in presenting his material is accounted for by the fact that he is the director of a large New York school of speech.

The book has fourteen chapters, an appendix, and—wonder of wonders—a full index. It is impossible to single out the best chapters, for all of them are of a uniformly high order. But it must be pointed out that the book is a full, well-rounded, scholarly treatment of the major aspects of public speech.

In his writing Mr. Flapan shows his wealth of speaking and teaching experience, for he is an ever-helpful guide around the many pitfalls of speaking. He points out what is to be done as well as what must be avoided. Patient, careful, experienced, the author seems at home in the whole realm of speech.

Everywhere the author exemplifies fully: sometimes formulae are given, sometimes experiences, and sometimes quotations. But always, the reader is made to feel that the suggestions are worthy because the author has seen them work out in his own speech classes.

At the end of each chapter, for review purposes, there is a careful summary. Although the author states that the book was written primarily for mature men and women, this reviewer recommends it for academic use. It is a most unusual book.

THEODORE G. EHRSAM, *New York City*

Voice for Speech. By FREDERICK WESLEY ORR. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938; pp. 283. $2.00.

The aspiration of our author in writing *Voice for Speech* is expressed in his preface thus:

> If the author has learned anything during the past ten years in regard to vocal training, it has been the necessity of discovering the cause of the vocal difficulty, whether it be in the (*a*) thinking, (*b*) the lack of emotional control, (*c*) objectionable personality traits, or (*d*) a defective vocal apparatus; and once the cause has been discovered, working specifically for the removal of the cause.

Few texts in this field are built upon so broad and rational a foundation as is this one. Professor Orr is to be commended for calling the attention of the student to many elements in his physical, mental, and emotional make-up that should be taken into account in the student's attempts at vocal improvement. It seems scarcely likely that without such a survey of his vocal potentials, even the best student would discover by himself all of the sources of vocal effectiveness.

One is amazed, however, at the ambitiousness of Professor Orr's outline for his book. The text material is spread over only 275 small pages; and of these perhaps a third are devoted to exercise material. In the rest he attempts to treat all of the problems listed in his preface. With each aspect he presents: (1) an analysis of its significance in voice production; (2) a statement of the normal voice as viewed from the aspect under study; (3) a study of the abnormalities of voice as viewed from this same point of view; (4) instruction as to methods of diagnosis of these abnormalities; and (5) methods of vocal improvement. When one observes that Professor Orr covers the entire field of voice from breathing to pronunciation—from thinking to feeling—from analysis of the printed page to the attitude of the speaker toward his auditor—one is astonished at the magnitude of his plan. One says: Can he accomplish so comprehensive a program?

To the reviewer it seems that the author has in many places written so sketchily as to bring no practical value to the reader. The job he has set out to do just cannot be done in so few pages. If half, or even a third, of what the book contains were amplified and presented frankly as a partial statement of the problem of vocal training, the book would have much greater value than the one before us. In the hands of a well informed teacher, who can so amplify the text, *Voice for Speech* furnishes an excellent outline for class study; but without such a teacher the book impresses without informing, mystifies without guiding, and disquiets without inspiring.

ROBERT WEST, *University of Wisconsin*

Your Voice Personality. By LORAINE OSBORN. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons 1938; pp. vii–xvi+176. $2.00.

This volume, written by a teacher in the field of voice culture and speech, seems to be directed at all those who may be interested in improving or uncovering their "voice personalities." As such it appears to fit well into the scheme of the adult education course.

The book is divided into three parts: How to Acquire a Good Voice; Adding Qualities That Give Personality to Your Voice; and, How to Express Yourself. In all, there are twenty-six chapters, many of them with eye-catching titles. Two of these, Keeping Your Voice Young, and Faults and Remedies, are of special and lasting value.

For sheer verve and dash one will go far to find the equal of this book; and the sprightliness of the style is joined to the experience of the author. Several other authorities are drawn upon, notably Professor C. A. Dwyer, who contributes both a preface and part of the chapter on speech construction.

There are five illustrations, a number of charts, and many searching and helpful questions. The book is stimulating. It should not go unread.

THEODORE G. EHRSAM, *New York City*

NEWS AND NOTES

The twenty-ninth annual meeting of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference was held at the Hotel New Yorker in New York City April 22 and 23, with J. Walter Reeves, of Peddie School, presiding. Among the programs presented were the following:

GENERAL SESSION

Wilbur Jones Kay (1873–1937), John H. Frizzell, Pennsylvania State College
Conducting Conferences and Training Conference Leaders, Frank Cushman, U. S. Office of Education
Social Standards in Public Speaking Instruction, Arleigh B. Williamson, New York University
Training for a Teacher Treating Disorders of Speech, Smiley Blanton, Cornell University Medical College
Standards for Choral Speaking as an Educational Activity, Magdalene Kramer, Teachers College, Columbia University
What Constitutes a Teacher of Speech? James M. O'Neill, Brooklyn College
Social Values in Discussion and Debate, Lester Thonnsen, College of the City of New York

SIGNIFICANCE OF SPEECH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM
Presiding: Frances Tibbits, Newark, New Jersey, Public Schools

Speech Fundamentals—a Part of the Commercial Course, Laurence B. Goodrich, East Orange High School, New Jersey
Evolution of Oral English, Mrs. M. J. Swindler, Junior College, St. Mary's City, Md.
Courses in Speech as Contributors to a Program in Human Relations, Elizabeth D. McDowell, Teachers College, Columbia University
Speech Improvement and the Classroom Teacher, Marie Ball, Madison High School, Rochester, N.Y.
Correlation of Dramatics and Guidance, Eleanor McBreen, Sidley School of Speech, Watertown, Mass.
Coördinating Speech in Secondary Schools and Colleges, Ethel G. Lord, Collingswood, N.J.

PUBLIC DISCUSSION
Presiding: W. Hayes Yeager, George Washington University

The Place of Parliamentary Procedure in the Speech Department, Joseph F. O'Brien, Pennsylvania State College
The New York Experiment in Public Discussion, J. V. Garland, Colgate University
The Appeal to Force in Public Discussion, William E. Utterback, Oberlin College

THE THEATER
Presiding: Hoyt H. Hudson, Princeton University

Shall We Have a National-Sponsored Theater? John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania
The Theater Is Always Dying, Barrett H. Clark, Dramatists' Guild
Revitalizing the Classics, Joseph Holland, Mercury Productions
The Difficulties of Modern Productions, Brock Pemberton

Debate

Presiding: Norman W. Mattis, Harvard University

A Century of Debating at Phillips Academy, Roger W. Higgins, Phillips Academy

Suggested Plans for Debate Speeches, Robert F. Young, Harvard University

Technique of the Scholastic Disputation, John J. Coniff, S.J., Fordham University

Pi Kappa Delta's Section of Questions, Marie Hochmuth, Mt. Mercy College for Women

Did You Hear What I said? Leo L. Rockwell, Colgate University

Dramatics

Presiding: John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania

New Plays for Amateur Production, Louise Frankenstein, editor, Play Readings

Movement in Directing—a Demonstration, Felix Brentano, N. Y. School of Social Research

Reading of Lines—a Demonstration, Constance Welch, Yale University

Pointing the Play—a Demonstration, Milton Smith, Columbia University

Educational Dramatics as a Process and as a Product, Ruth H. McKenzie, Friends' Select School, Philadelphia

How Not to Produce Classical Plays, Stanley Wood, South Orange High School, N.J.

Type Casting in Educational Dramatics, Julia Farnam, Central High School, Bridgeport, Connecticut

How and How Not to Teach Acting, Flora S. Curtis, Senior High School, Pawtucket, R.I.

New Forms of Theater, Roy Mitchell, New York University

Speech Correction

Presiding: Jane B. Taylor, President, N. Y. League for Speech Improvement

High Speed Vocal Cord Photography Showing Slow Motion Pictures of the Vocal Cords, Dr. J. C. Steinberg, Bell Telephone Research Laboratories

Speech Training for the Spastic Child, Dr. Earl R. Carlson, Professor of Neurology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University

Recent Experimental Approaches to the Physiology and Pathology and Articulation, H. Koepp-Baker, Pennsylvania State College

The Development of Useful Speech for the Deaf, Clarence D. O'Connor, superintendent, Lexington School for the Deaf

The Pathological Vocal Complications in the Characteristic Dyslogia of Mongolism and Their Treatment, Charles H. Voelker, Dartmouth College

Administrative Problems of Speech Correction, Henrietta Prentiss, Hunter College

Speech Readiness, Elizabeth D. McDowell, Teachers College, Columbia University

Problems in Oral Interpretation, George Glasgow, Fordham University

The Importance of Speech Training for the Very Young, Lou Kennedy, Brooklyn College

Progress of Speech Education in New Jersey, Ruth Thomas, President, N. J. Association of Teachers of Speech

Adult Education

Presiding: Charles A. Dwyer, New York University

What Adults Expect to Get Out of a Public Speaking Course, C. R. Richards, The National Institute

Special Problems in Teaching Adults, Abigail Casey, Pratt Institute

Advanced Courses in Public Speaking for Adults, Elmer E. Nyberg, New York University

Do Teachers of Adult Speech Courses Need Special Training? Oromond Drake, Princeton University

ORAL INTERPRETATION

Presiding: Ruth R. Haun, Syracuse University

The Teaching of Oral Interpretation of Poetry in the High School, Ruby Walker Papp, Hunter College High School

The Power of Speech, Leighton Rollins, Studio of Acting, Easthampton

Oral Interpretation, a Re-Creative Art, Margaret P. McLean, New York University

The Negroes' Contribution to the Speech Arts, Helen Brown, Hampton Institute

Dramatic Interpretation—The Theater Art, Elizabeth B. Grimball, New York School of the Theater

In addition to these formal programs there was a choral speaking demonstration with a panel discussion, a panel discussion on phonetics, and a demonstration class in parliamentary law.

* * * *

The annual conference of the Central States Speech Association was held at Columbia, Missouri, April 1 and 2, with close to four hundred teachers in attendance, and Charles R. Layton, of Muskingum College, in the president's chair. Among the programs presented were the following:

PERSISTENT PROBLEMS IN SPEECH

Presiding: Charles R. Layton, Muskingum College

Persistent Problems in Dramatic Art, William G. B. Carson, Washington University

The Probability of an Exact Factual Word Unit, V. A. Ketcham, Ohio State University

Oral Interpretation and the Language of Imaginative Literature, F. M. Rarig, University of Minnesota

Voice Training in an Integrated System of Speech Rehabilitation, C. T. Simon, Northwestern University

DRAMATICS

Presiding: Lee Norvelle, Indiana University

The Theater and the Arts in Wagner's Ideal Community and the Nazi State, Ulric Moore, Iowa State Teachers College

Training the Actor, Charlotte Wollaeger, Shorewood High School, Milwaukee

Some Problems in Directing, Susan Dikeman Dailey, Emerson High School, Gary

Clyde Fitch and the American Theater, Robert Masters, Terre Haute State Teachers College

The Teaching of Dramatics in the Gary Schools, Mildred Harter, Gary Public Schools

An Analysis of Present-Day Interest in Puppetry, with Demonstration, Jean and Wesley Wiksell, Stephens College

SPEECH CORRECTION

Presiding: Wendell Johnson, University of Iowa

The Speech Correction and Speech Improvement Program in the Rochester Public Schools, Esther Glaspey, Rochester Public Schools (Minnesota)

A Study of Speech Development in Nursery School Children, Mildred C. Templin and M. D. Steer, Purdue University

Exercises and Insight in Speech Correction, Ernest Henrickson, Iowa State Teachers College

A Two-Room Technique for Stutterers, Clarence T. Simon and Raymond Carhart, Northwestern University

ORAL INTERPRETATION

Presiding: Charles Price Green, University of Oklahoma

The University of Missouri Speech Choir, Ramon L. Irwin, University of Missouri

Values and Methods in Teaching Interpretation, Mary Blackburn, Granite City (Illinois) High School
Suggestions for Vitalizing Imagery, Elaine Tucker, Classen High School, Oklahoma City
Interpretative Reading as Preparation for Acting, Donald Winbigler, University of Iowa
Good Taste in Interpretation, W. M. Parrish, University of Illinois
Making Printed Words Live, Ralph Dennis, Northwestern University

DEBATE AND DISCUSSION
Presiding: Guy S. Greene, Iowa State College

Audience Reaction to Debaters, Alan H. Monroe, Purdue University
Some Facts About Speech Contest Judging, Franklin H. Knower, University of Minnesota
The Relations of Debate and Discussion, J. H. McBurney, Northwestern University

RHETORIC AND PUBLIC SPEAKING
Presiding: A. Craig Baird, University of Iowa

Chesterfield's Advice on Public Speaking, Donald Bryant, Washington University
Jonathan Edward's Theory and Practice of Public Speaking, Orville Hitchcock, University of Akron
Invention in the Speeches of Charles Sumner, Carl Dallinger, Park College
The Oratory of Samuel Gompers, Edwin W. Schoenberger, Northwestern University
The Public Speaking Career of W. J. Bryan, Myron Phillips, Wabash College

ADMINISTERING AND ORGANIZING THE SPEECH PROGRAM
Presiding: Charles R. Layton, Muskingum College

Speech Associations and State Teachers Associations, Thomas J. Walker, Secretary, Missouri State Teachers Association
The Administration of a State Program of Speech Education, Lloyd W. King, Missouri State Superintendent of Public Schools
A Bundle of Sticks, J. T. Marshman, Ohio Wesleyan University
Taking Speech Problems to the Administrator, Donald Hayworth, Michigan State College
The Development of a Speech Program, Frederick M. Tisdel, Dean of the College of Arts & Science, University of Missouri
Speech Standards and the North Central Association, John Rufi, School of Education, University of Missouri
A Survey of Teacher Training Requirements in the Central States Area, W. Roy Diem, Ohio Wesleyan University
What Chance Has Truth in Debate? E. C. Buehler, University of Kansas

SPEECH AND THE RADIO AUDIENCE
Presiding: H. C. Harshbarger, University of Iowa

The Radio Audience, H. B. Summers, Kansas State College
Radio and Public Discussion, Forrest Whan, Iowa State College
The Techniques of Speech in Radio Broadcasting," Eloise Daubenspeck, Director, American School of the Air, Columbia Broadcasting System

TEACHING SPEECH AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL
Presiding: Mildred Harter, Gary Public Schools

Creative Dramatics in the Elementary School, Rita Cristie, Evanston Public Schools
Choral Speaking in the Elementary School, Verna Finger, Northwestern University
Materials for Speech Work in the Elementary School, Lucille Miller, Hammond Public Schools
Speech Education and Reëducation in the Elementary Schools, Laura L. Smith, Gary Public Schools, and Jayne Shover, East Chicago Public Schools

TEACHING SPEECH AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL
Presiding: Cyretta Morford, Redford High School, Detroit

Security in the School, W. E. Rosenstengel, Superintendent, Columbia Public Schools, and Carney Smith, Northern High School, Flint
Security in the Community, Mrs. Charles Germane, Columbia, and Winifred Ray, Wiley High School, Terre Haute
Radio Widens the Field, Harriet V. Edwards, Director, Educational Programs, Station KMOX, St. Louis
Something Different, C. R. Van Nice, Managing Editor, *School Activities*

TEACHING SPEECH AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL
Presiding: J. H. McBurney, Northwestern University

The Undergraduate Major in Speech, K. G. Hance, Albion College
Adult Education in Speech at the College Level, Irving J. Lee, Northwestern University
Problems in Teaching Professional Speech, Dean McSloy, Garret Theological Seminary

In addition to these formal programs, there was a production of *Dear Brutus* by the Missouri Workshop, a production of *After Tomorrow* by the Stephens College Art Theatre, a luncheon and informal discussion of stuttering, and a conference dinner, at which the main address, *The Symbolism of Voice and Action,* was given by Franklin H. Knower, University of Minnesota. Officers for the current year are Franklin H. Knower, President, Lena Foley, Shorewood High School, Vice-President, and Loren D. Reid, University of Missouri, Executive Secretary. The 1939 conference of the Central States Association will be held at Minneapolis on April 14 and 15.

* * * *

The ninth annual convention of the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech was held at the Henry Grady Hotel in Atlanta from March 29 through April 2. The five days of meetings included the meetings of the Clinic-Institute of Human Relations Through Speech, the Southern Congress of Human Relations, the Forensic Tournament, and the Speech Festivals. The programs presented during this period were too numerous to be reprinted here in full, and hence are merely summarized. The objective of the convention was expressed as an intention "to serve as a student laboratory and faculty Clinic-Institute for the advance of progressive leadership in southern speech education." The programs included clinics in playcasting, speech recording, radio techniques, motion picture photography, make-up, and speech tests and measurements; programs on speech hygiene and phonetics, forensic innovations, elementary-secondary schools, colleges and universities, audio-visual aids, the educational theater, the interpretative arts, speech rehabilitation, four general sessions, a poetry tea, a choric speech festival, a Tau Kappa Alpha dinner, a state groups luncheon, an extempore reading prose festival, a drama festival, a forensic tournament, a congress of human relations, and an association banquet, at which the guest speakers included Nan Bagby Stephens, playwright, and Gilbert Maxwell, poet. Orville C. Miller, of Vanderbilt University, was president of the Association, and A. A. Hopkins, University of Florida, executive secretary. Close to fifty members of the Southern Association participated in the programs, as well as the following from other regions: C. K. Thomas, Cornell University; Elwood Murray, University of Denver; Raymond V. Shoberg, Western Michigan State Teachers College (Kalamazoo); Harry W. Amtower, Student Manager, Speakers Bureau, American

University; C. E. Krefting, Bradley Polytechnic Institute; Ellen C. Henderson, Chicago; Lee Owen Snook, playwright, Chicago; and Richard R. Hutcheson, American University.

* * * *

The Oregon State Speech Conference was held at Corvallis April 22-23. The program included an auditorium program; a sound equipment demonstration; a forensic exhibition which included a debate, an extempore speech, and an oration; a junior high school dramatic production of *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs;* a speech clinic demonstration; an interpretative exhibition; a stagecraft demonstration, including scene construction, lighting, make-up, and costumes; the Oregon high school championship debate; two business meetings and luncheons; and a conference dinner. This novel type of convention, without formal programs, is reported as having been unusually successful. About two hundred teachers attended the meetings, which were planned by the president, Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College. The officers elected for 1938-1939 were as follows: President, H. H. Dirksen, Grant High School, Portland; Vice-President, P. M. Collier, Portland Extension Center; and Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Agnes Lincoln, Sellwood School, Portland.

* * * *

The annual convention of the Georgia Association of Teachers of Speech was held at the Atlanta Biltmore February 18 and 19, with the following programs:

OPENING SESSION

Address of Greeting, Governor E. D. Rivers
The Place of Speech in the High School, Mark Smith, Superintendent of Schools, Thomaston
Speech in Motion Pictures for Classroom Use, Walter S. Bell, Director of Visual Education, Atlanta
Problems of the Director, Ruth Simonson, Wesleyan College
Radio Preparation, Gwynne Burrows, Commercial High School, Atlanta
Demonstrations:
Corrective Speech, Mrs. W. W. Davison, Atlanta
Creative Dramatics, J. J. Brooks, Atlanta
Make-Up, Madame Badea Ball, Elizabeth Arden Studios, New York
Educational Radio, Miss Brock, Educational Director, WATL
Radio Play Broadcast, Gwynne Burrows, Atlanta

SATURDAY MORNING SESSION

Poetry and Prose Material, Eleanor Moses, Statesboro
Plays Suitable for High School Production, Atwood Hudson, Thomasville
Character Through Speech, Dr. Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent of Atlanta Schools
Demonstration in Choral Reading, Mary Thomas Maxwell and Georgia State College for Women Choir

The Georgia Association elects only half of its officers each year. New officers for the current year are: First Vice-President, Stacy Keach, Armstrong Junior College, Savannah; Third Vice-President, Mrs. W. W. Davison, Atlanta; and Secretary, Atwood Hudson, Thomasville. Edna West, of Bessie Tift College, continues as President; Ruth Simonson, Wesleyan Conservatory, as Second Vice-President; and Louise Waldrop, Bessie Tift College, as Treasurer.

The annual meeting of the West Virginia Association of Teachers of Speech was held in Charleston, West Virginia, October 28. The program included a discussion of speech correction by Fannie Davis, Kanawha County schools, a discussion of high school dramatics by Dorothy Stone White, Morgantown High School, and an address by Dean Ralph Dennis, of the Northwestern University School of Speech. The president of the association is Voras D. Meeks, of West Virginia University, and Richard C. Brand, of Greenbrier High School, is secretary-treasurer.

* * * *

The first full day's meeting of the Oklahoma Speech Teachers Association was held in Oklahoma City on February 10, with the following programs:

GENERAL SESSION

Presiding: Charles Price Green, University of Oklahoma

Values in Choral Reading, Elaine Tucker, Classen High School, Oklahoma City
Technique in Oral Reading, Jack Douglas, El Reno High School
The Poetry Reading Festival, Chloe Armstrong, Yukon High School
Interpretation in the Junior High School, Ruth Redwine, Capitol Hill Junior High School, Oklahoma City
The Speech Education Bulletin, Elizabeth Anne Pickens, Franklin School, Tulsa, and Mrs. Velma T. Hutcherson, Tulsa
Selected Readings from Prose and Poetry, Gertrude Johnson, University of Wisconsin
Demonstration of Choral Reading: Classen High School Verse-Speaking Choir, under the direction of Elaine Tucker

DRAMATICS

Presiding: Frances Dinsmore Davis, Oklahoma College for Women

Demonstration of Tempo as Related to Stage Direction:
Farce, Leslie Reynolds, Lawton
Sophisticated Comedy, Neona Kidd, Wewoka High School
Romantic Comedy, Ruth Torpey, El Reno
Poetic Drama, Mary Gray Thompson, Oklahoma City
Folk Tragedy, Iona Ballew Freeman, Ada Senior High School

At the final meeting there was a symposium by a number of principals and superintendents on speech contest activities, a panel discussion on the same subject by high school and college teachers, and a discussion of the national contest system led by Ted Beaird of the University of Oklahoma. Officers of the Oklahoma Association for the current year are: President, Charles P. Green, University of Oklahoma, reëlected; Vice-President, James Robinson, Northeastern State Teachers College, Tahlequah; and Executive Secretary, Walter Emery, University of Oklahoma.

* * * *

The Ohio Association of College Teachers of Speech held its annual meeting at Capital University, Columbus, April 29. Lionel Crocker, Denison University, presented a paper on *Beecher's Speeches in England*; E. Turner Stump, Kent State University, discussed the *Dramatic Producers Coöperative Buyers Association*; and H. D. Hopkins, Heidelberg College, discussed *Experience in Government Sponsored Forums.* The Association voted formal approval of the Dramatic Producers Coöperative Buyers Association. Officers for 1938-1939 are as follows: President, Lionel Crocker; Vice-President, Rev. C. M. Ryan, John Carroll University (reëlected); Secretary-Treasurer, Bert Emsley, Ohio State University (reëlected); Editor of the News Letter, G. Vernon Kelley, Wittenberg College; and Executive Committee Member, W. C. Craig, Capital University.

The second annual conference of the Nebraska Speech Association was held at Grand Island April 9, with more than seventy members in attendance. The program consisted of five panels, with Norman Coffee, of Holdredge, in charge of the interpretative reading panel; Enid Miller, of Nebraska Wesleyan University, the oratorical panel; L. T. Laase, Hastings College, extemporaneous speaking; F. L. Winship, Principal of the Central City High School, the one-act play panel; and Ira O. Jones, Omaha Technical High School, the debate panel. Officers of the Nebraska Association for the year are: President, F. L. Winship, Principal, Central City High School; Vice-President, C. C. Weinerth, Superintendent of the Greeley Schools; Secretary, Margaret Servine, Lincoln; and Treasurer, Edward Betz, Hastings College.

* * * *

Michigan State College is this year inaugurating a new speech curriculum. The speech staff of the college spent several months compiling some three thousand topics which might be covered in a department of speech. These items were organized into homogeneous groups and arranged in courses. All overlapping has been eliminated, and the sequence of courses worked out with special care. The new curriculum includes 46 courses, as contrasted with 13 of the old curriculum. The Department of Speech and Dramatics of the college, created only last year, now has a staff of eight instructors and 38 majors. Enrollment in speech courses during the 1938 summer session was larger than that of any other department except education. Donald Hayworth is the chairman of the department.

The Department of Speech of the University of Oklahoma is now offering work leading to the Master's Degree in Speech. Charles P. Green is chairman of the department. During the summer session the department organized a Speech Conference for the week of July fourth, with Frank M. Rarig, of the University of Minnesota, as principal speaker.

* * * *

The University of Denver held its third annual summer Speech and Drama Institute, including a Laboratory in Playwriting and Folk Drama, a National Forensic League Conclave, and the Central City Play Festival. The institute extended from July 18 to 29. The programs were of all types, and covered all phases of speech work, with a large staff of lecturers. Among the speakers from a distance were George McCarty, South Dakota State College; Karl Mundt, Madison, South Dakota, President, National Forensic League; Gerald Pierson, Newton, Kansas, High School; E. E. Fleischman, College of the City of New York; William J. Wilkinson, Iowa State College; Kenneth Christiansen, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota; Vida R. Sutton, National Broadcasting Company; Maude May Babcock, University of Utah; Bryng Bryngelson, University of Minnesota; D. V. Morris, Kansas City Junior College; and Robert Edmond Jones, who was in charge of the Central City Play Festival last summer.

* * * *

The new course of study in speech for the state of Washington has recently been published by the Washington State Department of Education, and can be procured by writing the office at Olympia. In a recent survey of fifteen recent state courses of study prepared for a Master's thesis at Stanford Uni-

versity, A. Eason Monroe of that University rated the Washington course of study highest. It was prepared by a committee which included Horace G. Rahskopf, University of Washington, as chairman, and representatives from all school levels, as well as the director of a teachers college, a teacher of speech and lip reading for the deaf, a teacher of speech correction, an elementary teacher of reading, and the head of an English department. The course of study covers work in speech as a basic part of the curriculum from kindergarten through college and teachers college.

* * * *

The Southern Speech Bulletin, one of the most successful of the sectional speech bulletins, has just become a quarterly, thus doubling the number of its issues. Rose B. Johnson, of Woodlawn High School, Birmingham, is editor of the Bulletin, and Leroy Lewis, of Duke University, is business manager.

* * * *

Many members of the National Association of Teachers of Speech will be interested in the recent announcement of the National Council of Teachers of English, that a series of records is to be issued, called the Contemporary Poets Series, edited by George W. Hibbitt and W. Cabell Greet of Columbia University. One of the first records to be issued is a re-issue of Vachel Lindsay's reading of his famous poem, *The Congo,* which has long been out of print. It has now been transferred to improved durable disks. Robert P. Tristram Coffin has recorded his reading of three of his best poems, *The Secret Heart, The Fog,* and *Lantern in the Snow.* Robert Frost has made four double records of his best-loved poems, including *The Death of the Hired Man, Mending Wall,* and *Two Tramps in Mud Time.* A complete list of the available records may be obtained from the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th St., Chicago.

* * * *

Guest lecturers in the summer session at Washington State College included Kenneth F. Damon, College of the City of New York, and Carlyn Winger, Pacific College.

* * * *

St. Louis University now requires a course in the fundamentals of speech for all sophomores in the College of Arts & Sciences, and the School of Education and Social Sciences, and all juniors premedical, predental, and School of Nursing students. The result is that about three times as many students are choosing speech for a major as in past years.

* * * *

Stephens College now requires every student to take two hours of speech training during her freshman year. College authorities report that Miss Maude Adams has stimulated interest in better speech habits, and the demand for speech training has greatly increased.

* * * *

An innovation in the Northwestern University Summer Session this past year was a symposium in public speaking organized as a credit course of ten public lectures under the title of *Speech as a Social Force in the Modern*

World. The speakers were Gordon Allport, Professor of Psychology at Harvard University; Lyman Bryson, Professor of Adult Education of Columbia University and Educational Director of the Town Hall of the Air; George Hartmann, Professor of Psychology at Columbia University, and Harry Caplan, Professor of Classics at Cornell University. In charge of the course were James H. McBurney and Irving J. Lee of the School of Speech faculty.

* * * *

Announcement was made recently by the Radio Division of the Wayne University Department of Speech that a new type of master's thesis has been accepted. Frank Telford, formerly program director of the Wayne University Broadcasting Guild, and now radio script writer for the Detroit Board of Education, prepared seven weekly half-hour experimental dramatizations of *A Tale of Two Cities,* cast them, and produced them. He then prepared a director's manual with explanation of techniques used in adapting, problems in building sound, correlating mood music and drama, etc., and a recording of the complete series was then filed away as the M.A. thesis. Harry Goldstein is preparing another thesis of the same nature, using his own adaptation of the *Arabian Nights.* Garnet Garrison is director of the Radio Division of the Wayne University Speech Department.

* * * *

The annual recital of the London Verse Speaking Choir, which took place at the Tavistock Little Theatre July 14th, aimed to offer as much variety as possible, both in types of material, and in grouping of voices. The program included three dramatic verse numbers—the biblical drama of *The Golden Image,* two choruses and a scene from Archibald MacLeish's verse drama *Panic,* and a dramatization of Rossetti's poem, *Sister Helen.* The lyrical part of the program included passages from the Psalms, serious lyrics and nonsense verse, and prose selections.

* * * *

Miss Vanda E. Kerst, Chairman of the Department of Speech of the Pennsylvania College for Women, was for the second time in charge of a Choral Speaking Colony on the campus of the college during the past summer session. Six courses were offered by the staff, which included Genevieve Jones, of the University of Wisconsin, and Carll W. Doxsee and M. Oclo Miller Shaw of the Pennsylvania College for Women.

* * * *

Because of the rapidly growing interest in choral speaking, the Gloucester School of the Theatre offered a week's intensive course in this art after the regular summer theater season. Miss Cecile de Banke, of Wellesley College, was in charge of the course.

* * * *

A program called *Choral Speaking in the Educational Scheme* was presented the Department of Speech of Wellesley College April 29. It included demonstrations by the Wellesley Verse Speaking Choir, the Watertown High School Choral Speaking Club, the Newton High School Verse Speaking Choir, and the Pine Manor-Dana Hall Verse Speaking Choir.

FORENSICS

A series of transcribed triangular debates was arranged last April between the College of the Pacific, the Branch Agricultural College of Utah, and the Universities of Hawaii, Redlands, and Wyoming. After the recordings were made at each institution the discs were routed from campus to campus and to the judges.

A series of seven radio debates was staged over station WNEW during last February and March, between Rutgers University and Georgian Court College, on the proposition, Resolved: That woman's place is in the home.

At the University of Arizona last year 81 students participated in extra-curricular speech activities (this number includes some duplicates), including intramural debate, oratory, and after-dinner speaking; 25 of this number represented the University in intercollegiate forensic activities. The students engaged in 33 intercollegiate debates, 20 of which were held away from home. Among the speech awards given by the University are the intramural debate medals; the Steinfeld Loving Cup, awarded for the highest number of points earned in the intramural speech tournament; the Byron Cummings Debate Cups, to students who represented the University in intercollegiate debates; the Delphian Award, to the woman student who does the most outstanding work in public speaking for the year; and the Meyer Rubenstein Award for Good Diction.

The High School Division of the seventh annual Rocky Mountain Speech Conference was held February 17-19 at the University of Denver, with approximately 300 students and teachers in attendance. More than 100 students participated in the new Speech Experience Progression which was the chief feature of the program.

The Intercollegiate Division of the same Rocky Mountain Speech Conference, held at the University of Denver February 10–12, was centered around a new discussion progression on the theme of *Control of Disputes between Capital and Labor*. Squads of speakers from 23 colleges and universities participated in the sequence of seven discussions on this theme. The extemporaneous speaking, oratory, and visual aid speaking sections were also confined to phases of this theme.

William Jewell College, in Missouri, probably carried out the most ambitious intercollegiate schedule of any American college last year. The teams traveled into 39 states, British Columbia, and Ontario, and participated in more than 116 intercollegiate debates. One squad had an 8,000 mile trip, and two others had 6,000 mile trips, four of them going into 23 states.

The tenth annual convention of Phi Rho Pi, the junior college forensic organization, was held at Norman, Oklahoma, April 10 to 14. The 1938-1939 debate question for Phi Rho Pi schools is Resolved: That the United States should cease to use public funds for the purpose of stimulating business.

The 1938 annual contest of the Intercollegiate Civic Oratorical League was held at Oberlin College May 13.

At the University of Florida last year there were 50 students on the Varsity debate squad, and 58 intercollegiate debates were scheduled.

Allegheny College completed a busy debate schedule last year, including 50 intercollegiate debates, 26 of which were men's debates, 13 women's debates,

and 11 freshman debates. A Speakers' Bureau was organized by the Speech Department, and 24 engagements were filled, in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New York.

The 1938-1939 debate question for the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association is: Resolved: That the United States should establish an alliance with Great Britain.

DRAMATICS

The second theater conference of the year sponsored by the Pennsylvania State College through its Extension Services was held in the Playhouse at Erie February 19, with Henry B. Vincent, director of the Playhouse, as chairman. Members of the faculties of Allegheny College and Westminster College aided staff members from the Division of Dramatics in presenting the program. In the evening the Playhouse company presented *Elizabeth the Queen.*

The Cornell University Theatre gave 39 presentations during the year from the late spring of 1937 to the late spring of 1938, including nine long plays and 14 one-act plays in four groups. The annual period production was Paulding's early 19th century nationalistic comedy-satire, *The Bucktails, or Americans in England.* So far as is known, this was the first revival of the play. Other plays on the schedule were *The Importance of Being Earnest, Six Characters in Search of an Author, The Whiteheaded Boy, Ladies in Waiting, First Lady, Lady Precious Stream, Leave it to Psmith, Around the Corner, The Rivals,* and a revival of A. M. Drummond's choral drama, *Traffic Signals.* One of the striking experiments was a choral stage production of Archibald MacLeish's verse play for radio, *The Fall of the City.* In addition to these presentations, the theater entertained visiting exchange productions from Hobart and Skidmore Colleges, sponsored the Rural Dramatics Festival of Farm and Home Week of the New York State College of Agriculture, as well as the work of the Kermis Players of that college, presented showings of Museum of Modern Art and other significant films, and brought to Ithaca Tony Sarg's Marionettes, Thomas Wilfred's Clavilux, and the Winslow Dancers, and coöperated with the Cornell Dance Club in presenting the Humphrey-Weidmann Dance Group. The work of the theater is under the direction of A. M. Drummond, assisted by W. H. Stainton as assistant director; Colby Lewis as technical director; H. D. Albright, Rockefeller Foundation Survey of Rural Drama in New York State; Elizabeth Worman, costume mistress; Earle Ernst, business and publicity; and Joel Trapido, Georgiana von Tornow, Robert Gard, Joseph Miller, Clare Foot, Celeste Pirwitz and Marie Prole.

The Michigan Repertory Players, of the University of Michigan, celebrated their tenth anniversary this past summer with 34 sold-out performances of the following plays: Maxwell Anderson's *High Tor,* Shaw's *Arms and the Man,* George Abbott's *Brother Rat, The Shoemakers' Holiday,* Robert Sherwood's *Idiot's Delight,* Chodorov's *Kind Lady,* Lennox Robinson's *The Whiteheaded Boy,* and *The Vagabond King.* Valentine B. Windt is director of the Players, and the guest director for the summer was Whitford Kane, from the Mercury Theater in New York.

The first annual Drama Festival of the New York State Normal Schools

was held at Cortland April 28-30. The plays presented were the following: *The Maker of Dreams,* by Cortland Normal, under the direction of Mardel Ogilvie; *A Night of the Trojan War,* by the Geneseo Normal, under the direction of Mary A. Thomas; *The No 'Count Boy,* by Cortland Normal; *Which Is the Way to Boston?* by Greene High School, directed by Grace R. McCormick; *Chinese Love,* by New Paltz Normal, under the direction of Marion Twomey; *The Land of Heart's Desire,* by Oswego Normal, under the direction of Florence Chambers; and *The Government Regrets,* by Brockport Normal, with Blaine DeLancey as director.

Recent productions of The Blackfriars, at the University of Alabama, include the following plays: *In a Little Spanish Town,* by Norman Wright; *Death Takes a Holiday,* by Casella and Ferris; *Tea for Nine,* by Robert Scribner; *The Centerville Ghost,* by Tom Taggart; *The Trial of Mary Dugan,* by Bayard Veiller; *Down with Everything,* a musicomedy by John Holleran; Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*; *Let's Write a Play,* an original play by Ruby L. Apsey; *So You're the Detective*; *Barchester Towers,* by Thomas Job; and Sherwood's *The Queen's Husband.* The last five were presented during the summer session, with Vincent Raines as associate director. Lester Raines was director for all the productions.

John Dolman, Jr., directed the last performance of the Players Club of Swarthmore for the 1937-1938 season. The play was Valentine Kataev's *Squaring the Circle.*

Theatre Workshop and Dance Groups of Wellesley College presented on March 26 Dunsany's *King Argimenes and the Unknown Warrior.* Edith M. Smaill was director for the Theatre Workshop and Charlotte MacEwan for the Dance Groups.

Spotlight Club of Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, produced during the past season Mark Reed's *Petticoat Fever,* Ibsen's *A Doll's House,* and a melodrama, *Silas the Chore Boy,* by Frank Bernard.

Recent productions by the Hilltop Masquers of the Cortland State Normal School, New York, included *Hell Bent for Heaven, Berkeley Square, Journey's End, Outward Bound, Arms and the Man, Beggar on Horseback,* and *Under the Gaslight.* Forthcoming productions will include *Murder in the Cathedral, A Kiss for Cinderella, The Silver Cord,* and *The Purple Mask.*

Under the direction of Walter H. Trumbauer, The College Theatre of Alabama College recently presented Goldoni's *The Fan.*

The production schedule at Los Angeles Junior College has recently included Sean O'Casey's *Plough and the Stars,* Jerry Blunt's *But Not Bohemia, As You Like It, Tartuffe,* and *Stage Door,* by Ferber and Kaufman.

Announcement was made recently by the Armstrong Junior College, of Savannah, Georgia, of the opening of its dramatic library and service bureau to dramatic organizations in the region. As part of the service thus offered, problems of a technical nature, such as directing, acting, stagecraft, design, lighting, costuming, and make-up will be handled for the director or teacher. There will be no charge for this service unless a representative is sent, and then the only cost to the school will be the expenses of the representative.

PERSONALS

On Sunday, the fifth of June, the faculty, students, and alumni of the Northwestern University School of Speech celebrated the 60th anniversary of the founding of the school (as the Cumnock School of Oratory) and the 25th anniversary of Dean Ralph Dennis' directorship. In honor of the occasion the School of Speech held an open house all afternoon, with refreshments served by the faculty wives and alumnae, and the climax of the celebration was a dinner for all alumni, students, faculty members and friends of the school. The dinner was held at the Woman's Club of Evanston, and the speakers included Lew Sarett as toastmaster, President Walter Dill Scott of the University, J. L. Lardner, who spoke for the faculty, and Hope Summers Witherell for the alumni. The May number of the Northwestern University *Alumni News* bulletin was devoted to a sketch of Dean Dennis' career, announcement of plans for the celebration of his anniversary, and a *Salute to the Skipper,* by Clarence Simon.

Ray K. Immel, Dean of the School of Speech of the University of Southern California, conducted courses at Wayne University during the past summer. He is on leave from the University during the fall semester, and will spend several months in travel and research in the eastern part of the country.

Donovan Rhynsburger has returned to his position as director of dramatics at the University of Missouri, after a two-year leave of absence during which he earned the M. F. A. degree at Yale University. In the spring he appeared in the title role of the Yale production of *Rip Van Winkle.*

Miss Maude Adams has signed a twelve-months contract with Stephens College, beginning this fall. In addition to her regular work on the college campus, she will develop plans for a new summer theater for Stephens College, to be located in the Adirondacks in 1939. Miss Adams attracted widespread attention last year, when she spent six weeks on the Stephens campus, and produced Rostand's *Chantecler.*

W. Norwood Brigance, who has spent the past two years reorganizing the English Department of the University of Hawaii, has returned to his duties as chairman of the Speech Department of Wabash College. During the time he was in Hawaii the English Department there increased its enrollment from 1300 to 1800, and its teaching staff from 14 to 26 members. Twenty-nine new courses were added to the curriculum. About two-thirds of the increase was in speech.

T. Earle Johnson has returned to his post as chairman of the Speech Department at the University of Alabama, after spending the past two years doing graduate study at the University of Wisconsin. He will organize a speech clinic at Alabama, and initiate the first graduate work in speech, leading to the Master's degree in speech. New assistants in the Alabama department are William A. Dozier, II, of the University of Alabama, and Leslie Davis, of the University of Denver.

Ralph B. Wagner, director of Forensics and head of the Department of Speech at St. Louis University, is the new president of the St. Louis University chapter of the American Association of University Professors.

Paul Bagsell, who graduated from the University of Akron and secured his M.A. from the University of Wisconsin in June, has joined the speech staff

of Michigan State College, and will direct the work of the Speakers' Bureau.

Harley Smith, who has been teaching in the University High School at Louisiana State University on a half-time basis, will now give full time to this work. The University High School is the demonstration school of the L. S. U. Teachers College. The work includes methods courses for teachers who are doing practice teaching.

Irving C. Stover, of John B. Stetson University, and H. P. Constans, of the University of Florida, exchanged positions during the past summer.

Miss Edna West has resigned her position at Bessie Tift College to become head of the Speech Department at Georgia State College for Women at Milledgeville.

Miss Ruth Pirtle, head of the Speech Department at Texas Technological College, conducted the fourth annual student tour to New York City and Canada during July and August. The group was composed of 23 students interested in dramatics and other arts.

Members of the National Association will learn with regret of the death, on last December 9, of Erastus Palmer, who established the Department of Public Speaking at the College of the City of New York in 1903, and remained there until his retirement in 1930. He was one of the founders of the Public Speaking Association.

Who's Who Among Contributors

Elbert W. Harrington (*A Sense of Direction in High School Debating*) is instructor of public speaking at the University of Colorado at Boulder. He received his B.A. from Iowa State Teachers College and his M.A. and Ph.D. from the University of Iowa. Before joining the staff at Colorado he directed the speech work at State Teachers College at River Falls, Wisconsin, and at State Teachers College at Mayville, North Dakota. He has contributed to the *Gavel*, the *North Dakota Teacher*, and the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

Earl W. Wiley (*Motivation as a Factor in Lincoln's Rhetoric*) is Professor of Speech, Ohio State University. His undergraduate work was done at Dartmouth College. He has his M.A. from Ohio State University. He is the author of *Four Speeches by Abraham Lincoln, Hitherto Unknown or Unpublished (1927)*. He is the author of various articles on Lincoln as a speaker. He has written an article on Lincoln for *Studies on American Oratory* to be published by the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

J. T. Marshman (*The Mystery of Oral Interpretation*) is the president of the National Association. After teaching at Penn State University he joined the staff of Ohio Wesleyan University, where he has been head of the department since 1920. He is co-author of *Modern Magazine Stories and Oral Interpretation.*

Raymond Carhart (*Evolution of the Speech Mechanism*) is a member of the faculty of the School of Speech of Northwestern University. He received his Ph.D. degree from Northwestern University and is Instructor in the Department of Speech Re-education.

Donald Nylen (*Guidance and Speech in the School Program*) is Supervisor of Guidance in the secondary schools in Seattle. Dr. Nylen has been a member of the staff of the Department of Speech of the Seattle High Schools.

Donald W. Riley (*The Place of Radio in the Speech Curriculum Today*) directs radio instruction in the Department of Speech at Ohio State University. He has graduate degrees from Ohio State University. He has observed radio practice in Germany and France. At present he is working on a Handbook of Radio Drama Techniques.

Henry Lee Ewbank (*Bibliography of Periodical Literature on Debate and Discussion*) is Professor of Speech at the University of Wisconsin. He has served the National Association as Business Manager of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL from 1925-30 and as President in 1934. He is national president of Delta Sigma Rho.

Max D. Steer (*Speech Correction Facilities in Colleges and Universities of Indiana*) is Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of the Speech Clinic and Voice Science Laboratory at Purdue University. He holds the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees from the University of Iowa. Dr. Steer has conducted research studies in Speech Pathology and Voice Science, which appear in various psychology journals, *Speech Monographs, Journal of Speech Disorders* and the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

Eldon K. Jerome (*Speech Correction Facilities in Colleges and Universities of Indiana*) has his A.B. and M.A. from Northwestern University. Before taking up his work at Purdue as Assistant Director of the Speech Clinic and Instructor in Speech, Mr. Jerome was Research Assistant in Speech Pathology at Mooseheart Laboratory for Child Research at Mooseheart, Illinois.

William E. Utterback (*Patterns of Public Discussion in School and in Life*) received his master's degree from Dartmouth College and his doctor's degree from Cornell University. After seven years teaching at Cornell University and Dartmouth College he was for twelve years a professor of speech at Oberlin College. He has recently joined the staff of the College of the City of New York. He is co-author, with James A. Winans, of *Argumentation* and has contributed many articles to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL.

Charles H. Voelker (*Are Affricates Elemental Phonemes?*) has been on the staff of the Department of Phonetics of Ohio State University. He is at present Director of the Dartmouth College Speech Clinic. He is review editor of the Journal of Speech Disorders. He is interested for the most part in speech correction and in speech for the deaf.

Edwin H. Paget (Forum Communication) has his B.L. from Northwestern University and his M.A. from the University of Pittsburgh. He has been President of the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech, and President of North Carolina Association of Teachers of Speech since 1933. He founded the North Carolina Student Legislative Assembly in 1937.

Margery Anne Moss (*The Effect of Speech Defects on Second Grade Reading Achievement*) received the A.B. degree from Birmingham-Southern College in 1936, and the M.A. degree from Peabody College in 1938. She is now a primary teacher in the Birmingham, Alabama, public schools.

Katharine Ommanney (*Purposeful High School Dramatics*) is the author of *The Stage and the School.* A pamphlet on *How to Enjoy the Movies* written for the Denver public schools has been widely quoted. After receiving her M.A. degree from Stanford, Miss Ommanney has done further work at the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, London; The Oxford Summer School of Speech; Teacher's College, Columbia University; and The American Academy of Dramatic Art. Miss Ommanney is a member of the advisory board of the A.E.T.A. and a regional director of The Department of Secondary Education.

Last summer Miss Ommanney was acting president of the Cinema Appreciation League in Hollywood.

A. Craig Baird (*The Educational Philosophy of the Teacher of Speech*) is Professor of Speech at the State University of Iowa. He holds degrees from Wabash, Union Seminary, and Columbia. He is the author of *College Readings on Current Problems* (Houghton-Mifflin), 1925; *Essays and Addresses Toward a Liberal Education* (Ginn), 1934; *Public Discussion and Debate*, Revised Edition (Ginn), 1937; and *Representative American Speakers, 1937-38* (Wilson), 1938.

Christina Burlingame Andreini (*Selection of Materials for Play Production in the Junior High Schools*) is a student at Stanford University. Formerly studied at the University of Oregon and the University of Southern California. The wife of George Leslie Andreini, Director of Speech and Drama at Santa Rosa Junior College.

Delwin Dusenbury (Co-Author with Franklin H. Knower, q.v., Oct. Q.J.) is head of the Department of Speech at Itasca Junior College at Coleraine, Minnesota. He holds degrees from the Universities of Wisconsin and Minnesota. He is Chairman of Northwestern Division of Phi Rho Pi.

Arthur L. Bradford (*When Interpretation Comes of Age*, Oct. Q.J.) is the director of dramatics at Maplewood-Richmond Heights High School, St. Louis, Mo. He has taught in the Missouri School of Mines and at the University of Minnesota. He has taught at the University of Missouri summer session and will teach this coming summer at George Peabody College. He has been a frequent contributor to the English Journal.